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*Proceedings of the Association for promoting the Discovery of the interior Parts of Africa, containing an Abstract of Mr. Park's Account of his Travels and Discoveries, abridged from his own Minutes, by Bryan Edwards, Esq.; also geographical Illustrations of Mr. Park's Journey, and of North Africa at large, by Major Rennel. Printed for the Association. 4to.**

MR. PARK'S journey to the inland parts of a continent which few Europeans have visited, and his various dangers in a country where fanaticism and cruelty reign uncontrolled, and in which the most malignant passions of the heart are not checked either by humanity or by true religion, have strongly excited the curiosity of the public. This, we doubt not, will be amply gratified in his own work, which we impatiently expect. In the present article we must content ourselves with exhibiting the outline of his travels in a geographical view; and, as we have the assistance of so able a guide as major Rennel, we shall endeavour to extend the knowledge of Africa, from the only part of his illustrations which we can conveniently abridge, *viz.* the concluding chapter.

This vast country, which, in the time of Rome's supremacy, was the scene of proconsular magnificence, and might, if Carthage had triumphed, have been the mistress of the world, continued to be, even in the most enlightened periods, the scene of wonders; and *quid novi fert Africa*, was a question as common as at present. The knowledge, which the generality of the Romans acquired of it, was confined to the maritime regions, bordering on the Mediterranean, where magnificent ruins (which have been described by various travellers, particularly Shaw and Bruce) still exist: but it was better known by the philosophers and geographers. The Phœnicians were

* It does not appear that this work is on sale.

well acquainted with the coasts on the Atlantic ; but, of the internal parts, they knew very little.

The whole continent is divided, apparently by nature, into two parts. The gulf of Guinea, called the *Æthiopian sea*, encroaches greatly to the east ; and, on the opposite side, the coast of Ajan trends to the south and to the west. This natural division is nearly where the equinoctial line crosses Africa, and gives great propriety to the distinction of North and South Africa. The former is our present object ; and, before we attend to Mr. Park, we shall follow the disquisition of major Rennel.

North Africa, he observes, is distinguished into three regions — the small fertile space which borders on the Mediterranean, and which, in its most obvious features, resembles Europe ; the great desert on its south ; and, farther to the southward, the belt of mountains extending from cape Verd on the west to the high lands of Abyssinia on the east. Differing in some degree from major Rennel, we suspect that the immense chain of mountains which pervade the continent of Africa, from north to south, — mountains so high that no traveller is yet known to have passed even from Congo to the opposite coast, — must fall on either side to the west and east, in North Africa ; for the Senegal falls westward, and probably also the Gambia, from the chain which crosses what may be called the spine of the continent ; and the Niger, of which we have had only an imperfect glimpse, in the middle of its course, more probably falls to the east, and perhaps swells the waters of the Nile. The rivers, however, which fall from this belt into the *Æthiopic ocean*, are so numerous, that a descent is sufficiently evident on that side ; and the quantity of rain on the south may be supposed much greater than on the north.

The desert is chiefly a vast tract of sand, extending in breadth near eight hundred geographical miles, and double that space in length. Like the ocean, it has its gulfs, bays, and islands ; for the fertile ground breaks in on the sand in different places ; and spots of the most luxuriant vegetation, particularly on the eastern side, are scattered in various parts, where the sand is more shallow and the springs are more superficial.

The mountains, above-mentioned, contain salt and gold. This gold finds its way to Europe, while the inhabitants of Guinea annually receive from the English great quantities of cowries, or small shells from the East-Indian islands, which pass through a considerable part of Africa as money. Tombuctoo, a large city near the centre of Africa, on the banks of the Niger, is the mart of the gold and of the cowries. The source of the former engages Mr Rennel's attention ; but his speculations rest on a very uncertain foundation. The gold

dust is certainly brought by the rivers in their course, and discovered in their sands.

North Africa is principally inhabited by two races, — the Moors and the negroes. The former are mixed with the colonists who have, from different regions, been induced to settle in Africa, and press on the Moors, apparently the aborigines of the country. The Arabs seem, with respect to the Moors, what the Goths are with regard to the Celts. The negroes are thus pressed on from the north, and the Niger and the Senegal are now their northern boundaries. They are indeed an agricultural race, and not fitted for the pastoral life which the desert requires. With these the Foulahs are usually confounded. The country of the latter is insulated in a remarkable manner, between the mountainous border of Sierra-Leone on the west, and Tombuctoo on the east. They have not the jetty complexion, the thick lips, or the crisped hair, of the negro race. They are Mohammedans, with a mixture of paganism, but are less intolerant and more humane than the Moors. The major endeavours to ascertain the boundaries of each race with some minuteness, from Mr. Park's information, and other sources; but, without the map, his investigation would not be intelligible.

From various circumstances, the Foulahs seem to be the *Leucæthiopes* of Ptolemy and Pliny; and they still, according to the testimony of travellers from Sierra-Leone, retain their reputation for urbanity and hospitality. The characters of the Moors and negroes, the Libyans and *Æthiopians* of antiquity, are as different as their soil or their complexions. The former have the vices of the Arabs without their virtues, and are inhospitable, suspicious, cruel, and revengeful. The humble and less enlightened negroes are, on the contrary, kind and humane.

Such are the outlines of major Rennel's observations. We shall now turn to Mr. Park; but our account of his travels will be short, as we shall have occasion more particularly to follow him in his own more copious and minute details.

In the last volume of our former series (p. 105), we noticed the proceedings of the African association, of which the present work is a continuation. We there found the result of attempts to penetrate the continent of Africa from the shores of the Mediterranean and from Cairo. They were unsuccessful; and we, in some degree, at the conclusion of that article, anticipated the failure of any attempt from the west; for, though Mr. Park has done much, it must be allowed that he has failed in his principal object. We do not mean this as any reflection on him; for he has done more than could have been expected

from the powers of one man, and suffered more than human nature seems capable of enduring.

Our traveller set out from the banks of the Gambia, and proceeded to the eastward, and a little to the northward. At Kemmoo, the metropolis of the kingdom of Kaarta, he found the people at war with those of Bambarra, farther to the east, through whose territories the Niger flows; and he was advised, for greater security, to pass on to the northward. In compliance with this counsel, he advanced to Jarra, which lies north of the Senegal, and is consequently a frontier town of the Moors. In his way he passed through Simbing, the place where the last dispatch of major Houghton was written with a pencil. We need not inform our geographical readers of the unfortunate destiny of that adventurous traveller. In this region the country is fertile and well wooded, and it rises into frequent hills. In some parts, black cattle, sheep, and poultry, are commonly seen. The woods give protection to a small species of antelope (which affords venison of a delicate flavour), and a shelter also to the panther, the hyæna, and the elephant.

The land is cultivated by slaves, and yields abundant crops of rice and Indian corn. The inhabitants also cultivate ground-nuts, yams, and pumpions. The first, with wood-ashes, make their soap. Their cotton they manufacture into good cloth, which they dye of a rich blue colour. From the European traders they obtain fire-arms, and from the Moors salt. To the former, in return, they furnish slaves, ivory, gold-dust, and bees-wax.

Slaves are brought from the eastward, by itinerant merchants, called slatees, whose native country is unknown, even by name, to the inhabitants of this part of Africa. The slatees bring with them also a commodity called *shea toulou*, tree butter. This butter is white, firm, and of a richer flavour than the common kind; and it will remain good, without salt, for a whole year. It is procured from the nut of a tree, resembling the American oak; and the nut itself is, in appearance, like the Spanish olive. The kernel, from which the butter is procured by boiling, is covered with a sweet pulp, under a thin green rind. If we did not know the tree from which the sweet acorn, for ages the food of man, was procured, fancy might give him a delicious repast in the fruit of *this* oak; but he was not so fortunate.

The government of these regions is monarchical, but the sovereign is controlled by an aristocracy. The common people are in some degree slaves, though they derive protection from laws. Slaves who are purchased, or taken in war, are not within the pale of this protection.

These circumstances chiefly relate to the country inhabited by negroes. When Mr. Park had passed the Senegal, he was among the Moors: Jarra, in lat. $15^{\circ} 5'$, is one of their towns. With great difficulty and danger he arrived at a small distance from the frontier town of Bambarra, when he was seized, carried to the Moorish camp, and treated with great cruelty. Here he learned the fate of major Houghton, who was seduced into the desert, plundered, and probably murdered. On the 1st of July, 1796, he had the good fortune to escape, having recovered his horse and some necessaries. From his miseries he was relieved by the kindness of some Foulah shepherds, in whose huts he found an asylum, and with whose assistance he proceeded, in a journey of fifteen days, to Sego. Here he saw the object of his wishes—the Niger, which ran through the town, and seemed as wide as the Thames at London. Its course was from west to east. Sego is in lat. $14^{\circ} 10'$ and $2^{\circ} 26'$ W. long. from Greenwich.

The direction of the course of the river, which Mr. Park fully ascertained, shows that it is neither the Senegal nor the Gambia; and indeed the old accounts which describe a large river running eastward called *Neel el Abeed*, the river of slaves, and *Joliba*, the great water, are supported by our traveller. The former appellation is that which it received from the Moors: the negroes gave it the latter. As the Niger thus runs eastward, the great chain of mountains, equally the source of the Niger, the Senegal, and the Gambia, must be much nearer to the western coast than geographers have supposed. This circumstance, however, is not singular; for, on the continent of Asia, the mountainous chain which pervades the peninsula very nearly approaches the sea on the west.

Sego is built on both sides of the Niger; and its population, its commerce, and its various conveniences, in the heart of Africa, give a great and an unexpected gratification. The inhabitants amount to about thirty thousand. The houses are in the Moorish style; they are white-washed, and have flat roofs. The boats are long and narrow, and are formed of two large trees, hollowed and joined at the ends.

Mr. Park was prevented from waiting on the sovereign of the country, by a message from him, inquiring into the motives of his journey, and directing him to a distant village. The inhabitants were afraid or unwilling to receive him; and he was rescued from his habitation under a tree, to which he had fled for shelter during a thunder storm, by the hospitable kindness of a negro woman. She protected and fed him; and, while the family toiled all night, in spinning cotton, Mr. Park found himself the subject of this simple, plaintive, ditty.

' The wind roared, and the rain fell: the poor white man,

faint and weary, came and sat under our tree. He has no mother to bring him milk; no wife to grind his corn.—Chorus. Let us pity the white man, no mother has he, &c.'

This village, our adventurer soon found, was not a place of rest. The king would perhaps have countenanced and protected him, had his story been probable: but that a man should brave so many dangers, and travel so far, only to see a country with which he had not the slightest connection, appeared very unlikely. He suspected some sinister motive; and the slave-merchants were eager to keep his suspicions alive. He made a present, however, of five thousand kowries to Mr. Park, and ordered a guide to accompany him in a part of his journey. Our traveller was assured by this guide, that an attempt to penetrate farther along the banks of the Niger would be highly dangerous, and that Tombuctoo was inhabited by Moorish fanatics of the most cruel nature and habits. Not discouraged, he persevered in his attempt, and earnestly endeavoured to reach Tombuctoo. He arrived at a town called Kabba, situated in a beautiful country, highly cultivated. It was the season of gathering the fruit from which the tree-butter is made. It were to be wished, that this, as well as the bread-fruit tree, could be conveyed to our West-Indian islands, that a common luxury might be so easily procured from the fruit of vegetables.

Mr. Park, proceeding along the Niger, found that it expanded in breadth, and was enlivened by many beautiful and fertile islands; but its banks were inhabited by Moors of the most savage race, and negroes almost equally ignorant and ferocious. It was therefore impracticable for him to prosecute his intended journey; and, thus disappointed, he began his homeward course. He was then at an inconsiderable distance from Jenné, which is situated in an island on the river. At a more remote spot, the Niger empties itself into a lake called Dibbie, or the dark lake, so wide, that, in crossing it from west to east, the navigators of the canoes usually lose sight of land for almost a whole day. From this lake, the water issues in several streams: two of these encircle a large island, called Jinbala, and unite at the port of Tombuctoo. The direction of these streams is north-east and east; and the distance from Jenné to Tombuctoo requires a journey of twelve days. Farther eastward, little is known of the course of the river, and nothing of its termination. Silla, the limit of our author's travels, is in lat. $14^{\circ} 48'$ N. and $1^{\circ} 24'$ W. lon. Houffa is farther eastward, to the south of the Niger; and this town, Jenné, and Tombuctoo, are much more considerable than Sego. Between the two former, is a pottery of importance. The earthen ware is of good consistence, but not

glazed. Caravans frequently arrive at Houssa and Tombuctoo, over the desert, from the Mediterranean, by way of Fezzan; and from one of these Mr. Park heard of the capture of the Mediterranean convoy, by the French, in 1795. This was the direction which we deemed the most favourable for exploring the inland parts of North Africa.

In his return, Mr. Park's course was to the south-west. At Bammakoo, the western boundary of the dominions of the king of Bambarra, the Niger ceases to be navigable. It rises in a mountainous country, at a small village called Sankari. This spot our traveller attempted to reach; but, having already contended with the tropical rains, in all their violence, he was not long able to support the excessive fatigues of this irregular country. As he was sometimes plunged up to the neck in rivers and swamps, and sometimes lost in woods and deserts, without clothing, shelter, or food, his strength was exhausted. He was confined by illness at Wonda; and, at Kamalia, he lay for more than a month, harassed with a violent fever: he remained there five months longer, waiting for a caravan; for he had still five hundred miles to go, before he could reach the nearest friendly country in Gambia. By means of this caravan, he at last arrived in safety at the mouth of the Gambia.

In this journey, he often experienced the hospitable disinterested kindness of the Dooty, whose office nearly answers to that of our mayors, and whose business it is to provide for the necessitous stranger. With the liberal humanity and benevolence which characterise a superior dispensation, it is considered as a crime 'to suffer the king's stranger to depart hungry.' Sometimes the Dooty would receive a few kowries; sometimes this officer, and others, accepted a charm; for the negroes are highly superstitious, and think that a charm will defend them from dangers in flood and field, from the venomous serpent, the furious tiger, or still more dangerous Moor. They acknowledge the superiority of the Europeans by preferring their charms; and Mr. Park, like a good Christian, gave them the best in his power, the Lord's prayer, written on a thin board. The hospitality of his host and his family, at Kamalia, can never be sufficiently commended. Their assiduity, their attentions, and their solicitude, were unbounded; and their whole reward was to be the value of one slave. They must have been agreeably surprised to find it doubled.

The heat, as may be supposed, is, in the neighbourhood of the desert, intense; but, on the south, it is tempered by refreshing breezes; and, in the morning and evening, the weather is serene and pleasant. During the rainy season, the wind blows from the south-west, the region of the mountains. The mon-

soon usually changes after the latter end of June ; and the wind blows from the south west, until the middle or end of October. The commencement of this monsoon is the spring or seed time, and its termination is that of harvest.

Among the productions, we shall only mention the lotus. It is a thorny shrub, and abounded through the whole of Mr. Park's journey, though it prefers a sandy soil. It bears a small yellow farinaceous berry, of the size of an olive, which, when dried and pounded, is made into cakes, resembling the sweetest gingerbread. The negroes also, from some of their corn, prepare excellent beer. — Mr. Park's particular adventures and misfortunes we must follow in his own work.

The History of the County of Cumberland, and some Places adjacent, from the earliest Accounts to the present Time : comprehending the local History of the County ; its Antiquities, the Origin, Genealogy, and present State of the principal Families, with biographical Notes ; its Mines, Minerals, and Plants, with other Curiosities, either of Nature or of Art. Particular Attention is paid to, and a just Account given of, every Improvement in Agriculture, Manufactures, &c. By William Hutchinson, F. A. S. Author of the History of Durham, &c. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Law and Son.

PROVINCIAL histories have been so multiplied in our times, that we may expect, at no very distant period, to be gratified with a copious history of every county in the kingdom. Works of this kind are generally encouraged by the public ; and indeed, when they are well executed, they are highly amusing and interesting.

The compiler of the present work has exerted great diligence in the prosecution of his task ; but, though his former labours in the same department may be considered as presumptions of his being *in some measure* qualified for his more recent undertaking, his skill and ability are less conspicuous than his industry.

In the introduction, he investigates the ancient history of the Britons in general. It was not necessary for him to dwell upon that subject, as most of his subscribers may be supposed to have in their possession, or to have read, a history of England. He at length speaks of the ancient and present state of Cumberland. On the latter of these topics, he observes,

‘ The local wealth of this county consists principally in its mines, of which the chief are of coal : copper, lead, black-lead, and flates, are also won here, and Camden says veins of gold and silver were discovered in the reign of queen Elizabeth ; but since

that time they have not been searched for. The salmon trade, hath, of late years, become considerable, and much is sent fresh to the London market; but little or none pickled or cured. A considerable number of black cattle and sheep are bred within this district, but not of so large a size as those in Northumberland: large quantities of bacon and butter have, of late years, been sent to the London market; and within these thirty years large calico printfields and check manufactories have been established in Carlisle and its vicinity; such articles of trade as we have enumerated have arose to a degree of significance within a century: in short, one may safely date the progress of that flourishing state in which this county now appears, to be of no greater antiquity than from the union. Population increases rapidly, cultivation is advancing on every hand: and the most flattering appearances, that this county will become of the greatest consequence to the state, and of import to the mercantile world, within the course of another century, may be deduced from the growing manufactories, the increase of tillage land, the sheep-walks and wool, the improved breed of cattle, the advance in shipping and number of mariners, and the flourishing state of the mines.' Vol. i. p. 33.

Entering upon the body of the work, we are presented with an account of the baronial district of Gilleland. The priory of Lanercost is then described; and a wretched plate, representing that ruin, is annexed. Horsley is too copiously quoted for a description of the antiquities found near Burdowald. In the parish of Bewcastle is a curious monument, which has furnished grounds of dispute. It is an obelisk, with figures and inscriptions supposed to be Danish.

At Castle-Steads, various antiquities have been found, in clearing the area of the Roman station near that spot. They are, however, of little importance.

To the account of Naworth castle are annexed some anecdotes of lord William Howard, formerly a proprietor of it.

'He was' (says Mr. Hutchinson) 'the terror of the moss-troopers; and though he ruled the country with severe, or rather military modes, yet he wrought many happy effects in the civilization of a race of inhabitants, as barbarous and uncultivated as ever possessed a settlement in this island. He kept here constantly 140 men in arms, as his guard. The approach to his apartments was secured by plated doors, several in succession, fastened by immense locks and bolts of iron, defending a narrow winding staircase, where only one person could pass at a time.' Vol. i. p. 136.

'It is said,' [*that*] 'lord William was very studious, and wrote much: that once when he was thus employed, a servant came to tell him a prisoner was just brought in, and desired to know what

should be done with him? Lord William, vexed at being disturbed, answered peevishly, hang him! When he had finished his study, he called and ordered the man to be brought before him for examination, but found that his order had been instantly obeyed.'

Vol. i. P. 137.

In the parish of Aldston are 'the richest lead mines in the north of England.' A great number of the inhabitants, therefore, are miners; and (says Mr. Housman, whose notes are subjoined throughout these volumes),

'By long continuance in the works, they shew a simplicity of manners, rarely found among other labouring people: they are strong of limb, and when in liquor, a vice too frequent, they are quarrelsome, resolute, and ferocious: but when from home, are remarkably tractable, and steadfastly attached to their countrymen and fellow-labourers. Mining renders the people, later in manhood, unhealthy, and the strongest seldom exceed 60 years of age.'

Vol. i. P. 215.

These mines are said to produce 16,000 pounds *per annum*, after the payment of all expenses. They chiefly belong to the hospital of Greenwich.

The remarkable stones called 'Long Meg and her Daughters,' have given occasion for a long article; but the quotations are unnecessarily multiplied. The conclusion is, that this assemblage of stones formed a Druidical court of justice, as well as a temple of worship. The remarks which are here introduced, respecting the state of civilisation in the days of the Druids, are absurd. The compiler denies that those times were barbarous, and terms all persons 'servile and abject,' who speak of them as such upon the mere authority of Roman writers. None but a prejudiced antiquary would panegyris the civilisation of the times which preceded the Roman invasion of this island.

The description of Penrith is accompanied with remarks on the ancient monument in the church-yard. It seems to be the tomb of a warrior or hero of rude times.

Though the parish of Graystock, or Greystoke, contains a seat of the duke of Norfolk, we do not see the necessity of inserting so long a detail respecting the family of the Howards as Mr. Hutchinson has given. A sketch would have been sufficient.

The beauties of Ulleswater and the neighbouring parts of Cumberland are described chiefly in quotations. Of the manners and customs of the inhabitants of this neighbourhood, a short account is added, which we will quote.

'All the people of the dale attend at a funeral, which commonly

produces a great deal of feasting. At those times, and their clip-pings (or sheep-shearings) ale circulates freely, and many an historical song and tale goes round. Public worship is attended with great regularity, though even at the distance of four or five miles; and the inhabitants, in general, are well acquainted with the scriptures.

‘ The introduction of newspapers into these sequestered vales, we are persuaded, has not tended to increase the happiness of the people; for, in general, they are debased by party influence, and rendered abominable by pernicious fictions, so as to carry with them dangerous principles. And, much have those travellers to answer for, whose casual intercourse with this innocent and simple people, tends to corrupt them; disseminating among them ideas of extravagance and dissipation; giving them a taste for visionary pleasures, and false gratifications, of which they had no ideas; inspiring them with discontent at home, and tainting their rough, industrious manners, with a love of idleness, and a thirst after vicious pursuits.’ Vol. i. p. 446.

‘ The inhabitants seldom drink spirits to excess; they are hospitable to strangers, affectionate to their parents, and friendly to each other; not at all given to contention, except when their sheep heap is broken in upon, or their flocks molested.—There is a custom in the villages of Patterdale, Matterdale, and Legberthwaite, so unlike those perpetual jarrings and contentions, which so often disgrace and destroy the peace of villages, that we cannot forbear noting it. When sheep stray, no search is made after any particular wanderer, but every person takes care of the sheep that he finds strayed. On St. Martin’s day, the whole neighbourhood meets, to claim and to restore all the estrays; every person bringing all that he has, which do not belong to him. This general exchange has always been easily and happily settled, without ever having yet produced a single quarrel or law-suit. No other expence is ever thought of, but the general one of a hearty feast.’ Vol. i. p. 447.

We are afterwards led into various parishes of which the accounts are uninteresting; and the compiler even conducts us into Lancashire, that he may amuse us with a survey of the abbey and district of Furness.

From an ancient record relative to the town of Egremont, the following particulars are extracted by Mr. Hutchinson:

‘ The people of Egremont were obliged to find armed men for the defence of the fortress, forty days at their own charge. The lord was entitled to forty days credit for goods, and no more; and his burghesses might refuse to supply him, till the debt which had exceeded that date was paid. They were bound to aids for the redemption of the lord and his heir from captivity, for the

knighthood of one of the lord's sons, and the marriage of one of his daughters. They were to find him twelve men for his military array. They were to hold watch and ward. They could not enter the forest with bow and arrow. They were restrained from cutting off their dogs feet within the borough, as being a necessary and customary defence: on the borders, the dogs appointed to be kept for defence were called slough dogs: this restriction points out, that, within the limits of forests, the inhabitants keeping dogs for defence were to lop off one foot or more, to prevent their chasing the game; which did not spoil them for the defence of a dwelling. A singular privilege appears in the case of a burghers committing fornication with the daughter of a rustic, one who was not a burghers, that he should not be liable to the fine imposed in other cases for that offence, unless he had seduced by promise of marriage. The fine for seducing a woman belonging to the borough was 3s. to the lord. By the rule for inspecting the dyers, weavers, and fullers, it seems those were the only trades at that time within the borough under the character of craftsmen. The burghers who had ploughs were to till the lord's demesne one day in the year, and every burghers to find a reaper: their labour was from morning, ad nonam; which was three o'clock, as from six to three.' Vol. ii. p. 25.

The history and description of Whitehaven occupy many pages. In the year 1633, this place consisted only of nine or ten cottages. Sixty years afterwards, there were 450 families in it, amounting to 2272 persons. In 1785, the number of inhabitants exceeded 16,000. The town owes its commercial importance to the exertions of the successive heads of the Lowther family, from sir John, who lived in the reign of Charles II. to the earl of Lonsdale, now the chief proprietor of land in this neighbourhood. The state of ship-building at this port is noticed with some degree of partiality.

There are six ship-builders yards at Whitehaven; and it is not unusual to see ten, or twelve, new vessels upon the stocks. The reputation of the master-builders at this port is well known. If proof were wanting, one might refer to Liverpool, where such numbers of the Whitehaven-built vessels are constantly upon freight, and especially selected for the transporting of dry cargoes. We have nothing to do with the comparative merits of any place; or any set of artificers; but we feel much satisfaction in paying a small tribute of respect to the acknowledged merits of this useful, this important class of mechanics, prosecuting their business at Whitehaven, with a zeal for improvement, and an industry seldom separated from real genius; and, we may add, with an approbation which cannot fail of promoting their interest and character, as the specimens of their art become more widely disseminated.

‘ It may be proper to observe, that the first characteristic of the Whitehaven ship-building is strength :—in this particular, the vessels are said to excel all others. The next is burthen, with a small draft [*draught*] of water ; as the port is dry at low-water. — Perhaps, only within these twenty years, the less important circumstance of shape was considered :—we presume, that speed is a desideratum in all specimens of naval architecture.—The art of happily combining all these properties, so as to produce a machine the most useful in navigation, is undoubtedly the *ne plus ultra* of the science ;—and, perhaps, the building-yards of Whitehaven (in proportion) furnish more instances of such combination than can elsewhere be met with.’ Vol. ii. p. 83.

For the description of the lake and vale of Keswick, ample contributions are brought from various works. Little judgment, however, is evinced in the disposition of these borrowed stores.

In the account of the parish of Kirk-Andrew, due praise is bestowed on the late Dr. Robert Graham of Netherby, whose conduct as a landlord did honour to his character. The consequences of his zealous endeavours are thus mentioned :

‘ Instead of an half cultivated waste, he lived to see his property assume the appearance of a rich and fertile domain, provided with roads and adorned with plantations.

‘ Instead of the miserable hovels and poor village that once disfigured his prospect, he saw comfortable dwelling houses, and a neat market-town. The rent-roll of the estate was more than quadrupled, and yet the wealth of the tenants was increased in a still higher proportion.

‘ The number of inhabitants was augmented by above a third, but their value as citizens was augmented in a ratio which is incalculable ; they were changed from being idle to be industrious ; from wretched cottagers, grovelling in dirt and poverty, into contented husbandmen and opulent farmers :—still more, they were changed from loose and ignorant barbarians, ever quarrelsome and disorderly, into a peasantry, peaceable and regular ; a peasantry, perhaps, more intelligent and better educated than most others in the island.

‘ Such have been the effects of doctor Graham’s exertions. If an enlightened historian thought it a subject of which the greatest of the Roman emperors might justly boast, that he “ found his capital built of brick, and left it constructed of marble,” what praise is due to an individual, in a private station, who has been able to meliorate the appearance of a country, and to improve the morals of its inhabitants ?’ Vol. ii. p. 556.

The capital of the county is justly the object of particular attention. Like a zealous antiquary, Mr. Hutchinson says,—

‘It is reasonable to apprehend, that in so fine a situation, on the confluence of three rivers, and the grand estuarie of the Frith, this place was of some strength and distinction before the coming of the Romans.’ Vol. ii. p. 587.

There might have been a town upon this spot before the Roman invasion; but it is more probable that it was a mere collection of huts than that it was a place of any strength or importance. Of its state during the sway of the Romans, we have no certain account. It was, however, a place of some consequence in the reign of Egfrid the Northumbrian; and, when the town had been destroyed by the Danes, it was rebuilt by William Rufus, whose successor made it an episcopal see.

Of the state of Carlisle, about the beginning of the present century, the reader may judge from the following particulars. At that time, the city

‘Exhibited no marks of modern convenience and elegance. The buildings, mostly of wood, clay, and laths, bespoke the poverty and bad taste of the inhabitants. The gabels fronted the streets, the doors were generally in the centre, and many of the houses had porches which projected two or three yards into the street, doubtless for warmth. The front door was arched, or Gothic, formed to correspond with the gabel; and the diminutive windows, which gave light to the inner apartments, were very improperly placed, but of the same order. The doors were of oak, very strong and clumsy, put together with large wood pins, a part of which projected an inch or two from the door. These pins were many in number, and sometimes placed in figures romantically irregular. Houses were not then painted either within or without; this being only a modern improvement. The streets, though spacious, were paved with large stones, and the centre part or causeway, rose to a considerable height. The fronts from the houses were paved in the same manner, the consequence of which was, that the kennels or gutters were deep trenches, and stone bridges were placed in many different parts, for the convenience of passing from one side of the street to the other. These gutters were the reservoirs of all kinds of filth, which when a sudden heavy rain happened, by stopping the conduit of the bridges, inundated the streets so, as to render them impassable on foot.’ Vol. ii. p. 659.

The town remained in this state till the middle of the century. A woollen manufactory was then established on a large scale; and, though it failed, the success of other branch-

es of manufacture made full compensation. Various improvements now began to take place. A more elegant style of building was adopted; and many inconveniences and nuisances disappeared from the city. At the same time, the frugal manners of the inhabitants gave way to the encroachments of luxury.

The population of Carlisle, in 1763, amounted to 4158 persons, the occupants of the suburbs being included. In 1780, 6299 were enumerated; and, in 1787, 1000 more were reckoned.

Accounts are given of the persons who have occupied this see, to the number of fifty-three. Archdeacon Paley furnished the sketch of bishop Law, of whom he thus speaks:

‘ The life of Dr. Law was a life of incessant reading and thought, almost entirely directed to metaphysical and religious inquiries; but the tenet by which his name and writings are principally distinguished, is “that Jesus Christ, at his second coming, will, by an act of his power, restore to life and consciousness the dead of the human species, who, by their own nature, and without this interposition, would remain in the state of insensibility, to which the death brought upon mankind by the sin of Adam had reduced them.” He interpreted literally that saying of St. Paul, 1 Cor. xv. 21. “As by man came death, by man came also the resurrection of the dead.” This opinion had no other effect upon his own mind than to increase his reverence for Christianity, and for its divine founder. He retained it, as he did his other speculative opinions, without laying, as many are wont to do, an extravagant stress upon their importance, and without pretending to more certainty than the subject allowed of. No man formed his own conclusions with more freedom, or treated those of others with greater candour and equity. He never quarrelled with any person for differing from him, or considered that difference as a sufficient reason for questioning any man’s sincerity, or judging meanly of his understanding. He was zealously attached to religious liberty, because he thought that it leads to truth; yet from his heart he loved peace. But he did not perceive any repugnancy in these two things. There was nothing in his elevation to his bishoprick which he spoke of with more pleasure, than its being a proof that decent freedom of inquiry was not discouraged.

‘ He was a man of great softness of manners, and of the mildest and most tranquil disposition. His voice was never raised above its ordinary pitch. His countenance seemed never to have been ruffled; it preserved the same kind and composed aspect, truly indicating the calmness and benignity of his temper. He had an utter dislike of large and mixed companies. Next to his books his chief satisfaction was in the serious conversation of a literary com-

panion, or in the company of a few friends. In this sort of society he would open his mind with great unreservedness, and with a peculiar turn and sprightliness of expression. His person was low, but well formed; his complexion fair and delicate. Except occasional interruptions by the gout, he had for the greatest part of his life enjoyed good health; and when not confined by that distemper, was full of motion and activity. About nine years before his death, he was greatly enfeebled by a severe attack of the gout in his stomach; and a short time after that, lost the use of one of his legs. Notwithstanding his fondness for exercise, he resigned himself to this change, not only without complaint, but without any sensible diminution of his cheerfulness and good humour. His fault (for we are not writing a panegyric) was the general fault of retired and studious characters, too great a degree of inaction and facility in his public station. The modesty, or rather bashfulness of his nature, together with an extreme unwillingness to give pain, rendered him sometimes less firm and efficient in the administration of authority than was requisite. But it is the condition of human mortality. There is an opposition between some virtues which seldom permits them to subsist together in perfection.' Vol. ii. p. 637.

Lists of the animals, plants, and minerals of Cumberland, scientifically arranged, are added to the work; and biographical *memoranda* are inserted in various parts of it. Some account of a remarkable native of the county we will transcribe from one of these sketches.

' At Little Broughton, in 1714, was born Abraham Fletcher; a man of some celebrity, though but a tobacco-pipe-maker, and the son of a person of the same occupation. The father had a small paternal estate; on which, with his trade, he was barely enabled to live, and bring up his family, without their becoming burthensome to their parish. It is not certain, that his son Abraham ever went to any school. We mention it on the authority only of a common report, that, very early in life, before he was able to do any work, his parents once spared him for three weeks, to attend a school in the village, where youth were taught at the rate of a shilling for the quarter. If this report be well-founded, all the education he ever had that was paid for, cost three-pence. By some means or other however he learned to read: and, before he had arrived at manhood, he had also learned to write. With these humble attainments to set out with, it does him infinite honour, that, at length by dint of industry alone, Abraham Fletcher became a man of science, and a man of learning. He was of a thinking, inquisitive mind; and, having taught himself arithmetic, in preference to any other science, only because he met with a book of arithmetic and no other, for the same reason he applied himself to mathematical investigations. Whatever he attempted, he attempted with all his

might; and pursued with unwearied diligence. In the day-time, he was employed in husbandry, or in making pipes: and, at night, eagerly betook himself to work the theorems (which word he long used to pronounce theōrems) on which, during the day, he had been intensely ruminating. Often has he sate up all night, delineating diagrams; to the serious grief of his parents, who considered only the apparent unprofitableness of such pursuits, and the certain loss of the lump or two of cannel-coal, incurred by his lucubrations. Hardly ever, even in the subsequent more prosperous periods of his life, did he aspire to any thing beyond a rush-light. The parents, contented in their ignorance, felt no ambition to have their son pass through life otherwise than they had done, in the midst of hard work, and hard fare. And, as his midnight studies, and abstractedness of mind, seemed not to them likely to qualify him either to work more, or to eat less, they thought it their duty, and for his interest, to discountenance and discourage his passion for theōrems: his books and his slate were hid; and he was double-tasked with labour. It was this poor man's fate to begin and continue through life his pursuit after knowledge, under almost every possible disadvantage: yet difficulties and discouragements seemed but to increase his ardour. We remember his relating, many years ago, with vast self-complacence and satisfaction, a device he had formed, by which he flattered himself he should be permitted to stick to his studies without interruption, at his few intervals of leisure. He married early; and his wife, adopting the opinions and maxims of his parents, was no friend to studies, which appeared to her little likely to lead to any thing that might help to feed and clothe themselves, or their children. — Over his house of one room, there was a kind of loft, or boarded floor, (in Cumberland called a *bauks*) which, however, had neither door, window, nor stairs. Hither, by means of a single rope, which he always drew up after him, he mounted with his book and his slate; and here he went through Euclid. We are conscious our anecdote is but simple; yet it is not insignificant.

At about the age of thirty, even his wife began to be persuaded, that learning, according to the old saw, may sometimes be a substitute for house and land, and consented to his relinquishing his manual labours, and setting up as a schoolmastr. For several years, he was a teacher of mathematics of considerable reputation; and many respectable young men were his pupils.

Still pursuing knowledge wherever knowledge was to be found, Abraham (now Mr.) Fletcher, became a botanist, as well as a mathematician: but he studied the properties, rather than the classification of plants; and made many experiments to ascertain their medical virtues. Few men, it is believed, have lately made a greater proficiency than he did, in this (now perhaps too much neglected) department of science: and he was soon qualified to commence doctor, as well as schoolmaster. It is true, indeed, he practised chief-

ly, if not solely, with decoctions or diet-drinks: yet, with these, he either did perform, or got the reputation of performing, many extraordinary cures; and had no small practice.' Vol. ii. p. 324.

'Like Dryden, like the late Mr. Henderson, of Pembroke-college, Oxford, and like many other men of unquestionably great abilities and learning, Fletcher put great confidence in the prognostications of judicial astrology. And what is more extraordinary, many of his predictions were wonderfully fulfilled.' Vol. ii. p. 325.

'It was much to Mr. Fletcher's credit, that with all his attention to mere intellectual attainments, he never was inattentive to those duties which prudence had annexed to his station in life. He was not only a pattern of industry but a pattern of œconomy; two virtues, which have been well called the handmaids of fortune. And hence he was enabled to leave to his large family not less than 4000l.; 3000l. of which were of his own earning.' Vol. ii. p. 326.

He died at an advanced age in the year 1793. He published the *Universal Measurer*, a work of merit.

This publication, with reference to the greater part of it, may be termed *rudis indigestaque moles*. It consists of a great variety of materials, from which a valuable history of the county might be composed: but, in its present state, it wants the reforming hand of an able writer.

T. Lucretii Cari de Rerum Naturâ Libros sex longe emendatiores reddidit G. Wakefield, &c. (Concluded from p. 262.)

THE third volume of this work commences with a poem addressed to Lucretius by the learned editor. It is, in various parts, elegant and spirited. The writer takes leave of the poet whom he has illustrated, and expresses his hope that his own name may descend to posterity with that of the philosophical bard. It will be a sufficient reward to him, he says, if his little bark should sail as an attendant upon the great vessel, and if posterity should be inclined to consider his work as worthy of patronage more extensive and splendid than that which it has received. If he had followed the profession of arms rather than that of literature, or had promoted the prevailing rage for war, 'a race devoted to Bellona and the Furies' would have deemed him, he thinks, more prudently attentive to his interest than he has proved himself to be. He does not, however, repent of his general attachment to the Muses, or think the particular time mis-spent which he has employed in the study of Lucretius. By his philological pursuits he was

amused and interested, while the demons of war were raging around.

To the consideration of the notes upon the fifth book we now proceed. The second verse of the book is allowed by Mr. Wakefield to be in a corrupt state; but he is unwilling to tamper with it, and has therefore given it according to the best editions—

—— pro rerum majestate, hiisque repertis.

116, 117. Terras, et solem, et cælum, mare, sidera, lunam,
Corpore divino, debere æterna manere.

For the last word, *meare* is substituted in the present edition, in compliance with the authority of the oldest manuscripts; but the defence of the word, as preferable to *manere*, is not satisfactory; nor is the supposed illustration from Ovid strictly apposite; for *micet* well refers to *corona*, whereas *meare* will not suit all the substances or bodies mentioned in the 116th line. We subjoin the note in question, that the classical reader may judge for himself.

‘Pro dictione *meare* vulgus editorum posuit, audacissime et inscitissime, *manere*: veriti scilicet, ne verbum *meare* unicuique nomini præcedentium minus accurate conveniret. Quam indocte! Nos elegantiam suam Lucretio religiosissime esse redonandam prorsus existimavimus, pro inerti correctorum interpolatione, quæ frigore ferit locum. Ita solent poetæ vividiorum et ornatiorum dicendi modum sequi, et picturatas voces otiosis anteferre. Non alienus est Ovidius, trist. v. 3. 41.

Sic *micet* æternum, vicinaque sidera vincat,
Conjugis in cælo Cressa corona tuæ.

Duret, maneat, vel simile quippiam, pedestrem sermonem respiciisset.

134. —— Neque a nervis et sanguine *longiter* esse.

Mr. Wakefield has introduced *longius* from manuscripts, not without the usual animadversions upon his editorial predecessors.

248. Illud in hiis rebus *ne me arripuisse* rearis.

We are pleased to find *ne conripuisse* in lieu of the words which we have marked.

297. —— pingues multâ *caligine*, tedæ.

Fuligine, by a plausible conjecture, is thought more worthy of a place than the *caligine* of the ordinary editions.

312—314. Denique, non monumenta virum dilabſa videmus?

Quærere, proporro, sibi quomque senescere credas.

Non ruere avolsos filices a montibus altis—

Of the second of these lines, there are various readings; and

both that and the third are condemned by Lambinus and Bentley as the produce of an interpolating critic. The note upon this passage is worthy of transcription.

‘ Argutulus est poëta scilicet, dum inanes fastus et frivolum mortalium fragilium arrogantiam irridet, castigatque. Quasi dixerat: “ Nonne passim videmus, dum viam facimus, tumultus defunctorum dilapsos, corruentes, ac ruinosos? Credas propemodum eos dato quasi studio ad senectutem properanter contendere, quocunque tandem modo; ut eandem mortalitatem homunculis, quos contegunt, ocysime consequantur.” In his autem nihil equidem discernere valeo, ad quod editor prudens debeat offendere, aut cujus lepidus scriptor poenitere. Jam vero scripsi versum, prout invenitur in vetustissimis incorruptissimisque exemplaribus, adeo ut de sensu, si minus probus sit et commendabilis, necessum est ipse poëta videat. Tales libros consentientes temere proculcare non est meum. Bentleyus, post Lambinum, hunc et sequentem versum pro adulterinis et audacter intrusis habuit: quos demiror. Sed cuilibet promptum est ita nodum Gordianum dissecare. Obstupescimus Preigero, homini annumerando lautioribus, aurum in Vossianis sordibus inveniendi; vix dignis, quibus chartæ nostræ inquinentur:

Quæ ruere proporro ibi, conque senescere credas.

Nimirum, aliquoties cogimur, de tentaminibus excellentium virorum, sed artis divinæ veneres non medullitus sentientium, loqui durius et acerbius, quam vellemus. Nec tædium non est devorandum nobis, exhibendi coram lectoribus versiculum indignissime acceptum, qualem ex officinâ suâ diffictum editores boni protulerunt:

Cedere proporro, subitoque senescere casu.

345. ———— *terrai cœlique* —.

Mr. Wakefield has restored *terrarum*; but he has expressed himself with greater acrimony of censure, and also with greater self-complacency, than the occasion required.

421. *Ordine se suo quæque* ————

In one manuscript, he has thus found a disputed passage. *Suo* must therefore here be read as one syllable; and, if this be the true reading, the discovery of which he boasts, with regard to a line in the seventh eclogue of Virgil, is well supported, as the latter poet is a very frequent imitator of Lucretius.

‘ Euge! euge! εὐρηκαμεν nobismetipsis gratulamur. Ad amissum præceptoris magni magnus discipulus indubitanter est quadrandus; et multorum criticorum tumultus jam sedabuntur in æternum, temeritas etiam nonnullorum, membranas conculcantium, reprimetur, verissimâ constitutione Maroniani versûs, de codicum testimonio, ad ecl. vii. 54.

Strata jacent passim sua quæque sub arbore poma.

Vides *sua* sexti casus validissimo Cari robore suffultum, et se contra cavillatores universos jure optimo tueri quire.

509. Unum labundi conservans usque tenorem.

The easy flow and extraordinary smoothness, as well as sober dignity of this line, are noticed by the editor in high terms of praise. Gray, who was a man of extensive reading, seems to have had this verse in his recollection when he wrote —

‘They kept the noiseless tenor of their way.’

678. *Consequa natura est jam rerum ex ordine certo.*

For this reading we have *consequæ quodque est* in the work before us; and it appears to be genuine.

736. ————— *Veneris prænuncius* ———.

Bentley having here recommended *veris*, and Mr. Wakefield having formed a similar conjecture, that word is inserted in the text for *Veneris*; and the improvement is obvious.

752. ——— quæ luna queat terram secludere solis —.

Mr. Wakefield prefers *poscis*; and, though he admits that the passage is difficult, he is confident of the propriety of his explanation, which we shall state in his own words, without counteracting it by any objections.

‘Sensus loci, subtiliore dicendi genere involutus, sic se habet: “Poscis autem, cur luna terram queat obumbrare? Tum aliud corpus putetur non posse idem facere.” Nempe, qui dubitat de priorē re, eidem liceat de posteriore quoque dubitare: quum vero priori assenserint plerique, nihil causæ est, quare et posteriori recusent assentire.—Nobismetipsis certissima videtur hæc enarrandæ structuræ ratio; et dicendi formulas haud dissimiles lector reperiat apud Virgilium, ecl. iii. 90. geo. ii. 105, 106.’

890. ——— *rapidis* canibus subcinctas ———.

He has ventured to alter the first word to *rabidis*, and has supported the emendation (for we consider it as such) by a multiplicity of quotations.

1441. Tum mare *velivolis* florebat propter odores.

All the critics who have endeavoured to improve this verse, are severely censured for their folly and audacity; but, as given by the present editor, it does not seem pure or genuine.

Lib. VI. v. 15. Atque animi ingratis vitam vexare querelis.

This line is followed, in the old copies, by *Causam, quæ infestis cogit servire querelis*; a verse which is excluded by several of the editors, who have thus, without authority, given the former line:

Atque animum infestis cogi servire querelis,

47. *Ventorum excierat pacator*—.

We strongly doubt whether this is the true reading; and, as the passage is so corrupt, it is perhaps impracticable to restore it.

69, 70. ————— numina sancta

Sæpe oberunt—

The substitution of *oberunt* for *oderunt* and *aderunt*, is so well justified, that we will quote the remarks upon this point.

Oberunt: i. e. “*ob os tibi erunt*; et, quasi minitantiæ, vultus sævos a cœli regionibus ostendent.” Elegantissime. . . . Lector lepidus nasutusque singulare dictionis *obesse* exemplum in primariâ ejus significatione, haud alibi temere visendum, sedulo observet velim: quum vero hæc oppositio, et sui in oculos alienos ingerendi importunitas, plerumque sit hostiliter animati, et injuriam meditantis; hi proclivi est intelligere, quam leniter hoc verbum ad sensum *no-cendi* delabatur. Interea, nihil liquidius, quam nos sincerissimam scripturam eruisse; quum exquisitius vocabulum librariis et editoribus pariter imposuerit in hoc loco: nam membranæ et editi veteres ad unum habent *oderunt*, præter P.*. qui *aderunt*; unde hodierni editores exceperint: sed extemplo jures hoc esse recentis correctoris facinus. Qui capiant aliter Virgilianam phrasin, ad geo. i, 374. nec scienter politissimum artificem degustant, et egregie falluntur;

————— Numquam imprudentibus imber

Obfuit:—

i. e. “Imber nunquam illis *obversatus est*, vel *se coram dedit*, qui non poterant, ope cœlestium signorum, satis providere ante, ac præcavere.” Nihil planius; ut mireris merito doctorum inficetias, subtilia ὀλῶ θυλάκῳ prorsus intempestive prodigentium.’

183. ————— oculorum ad limina nostra.

This reading properly supersedes that which appears in some editions—*oculos ad lumina nostros*.

280, 281. Inde, ubi percaluit *gravius ventosus*, et ignis

Inpetus incescit.

Bentley would here read *venti vis vel gravis ignis*; but our commentator rejects this mode of adjusting the text, though he does not decisively maintain the propriety of the other reading.

295. Incidit in validam maturo a culmine nubem.

The purity of this passage seems to have been restored by the editor, who thus explains the import of it:

‘Vult nimirum poëta, ventum ita incidere vertici, vel superiori parti, nubis, jam maturos ignes gestantis, ut eam permeet, atque alteram, sive inferiorem, partem ejus, unde fulmen evolet, perumpat. Hinc omnia fiunt clara, et expedita.’

* This abbreviation refers to the edition of Pius.

601. ————— æternæ mandata Saluti.

With reason has Mr. Wakefield praised the elegance and dignity of these expressions.

‘ Noster, optimus omnium ferme poëta, an magis magnifice locutus sit hac occasione, plane dubites, an eleganter. Quasi scilicet universus mundus quædam *παράκαταβηξ* foret, quam Salus ipsa in æternum conservaret, dente Temporis indelibatam, nullisque injuriis obnoxiam.’

716. Anni tempore eo, qui Etēsīæ esse feruntur.

He has exhibited this verse in a purer state than that in which we had before seen it. The same remark may be applied to the 722d line, —

Inter nigra virūm percussis secula colore.

747. Is locus est Cumas apud ; acri sulfure montes—.

Few verses in the whole poem have given more exercise to the critics, than this line. After a statement of the varieties of reading, Mr. Wakefield observes of the verse —

‘ Vulgo nimirum, sine omni probabilitatis specie, sic edi solet :

Qualis apud Cumas locus est, montemque Vesevum :

confusis omnibus, et more prorsus temerario, nullâ codicum ratione habitâ, constitutis. Jam vero dies me deficeret, nec vires et chartæ sufficerent, si pergerem morosam enumerationem facere divinationum omnium singillatim, quas secunda doctorum sagacitas in hunc versiculum copiosissime profudit. *Ἀριστάμας κεῖνος εἶπεν* sunt enim ferme commentitiæ prorsus, futesque. Bentleius id, quod nos exhibuimus, probabat ; nisi quod sic initium versûs rescribendum diceret, “ *Ut lacus est Cumas :*” quæ parum videntur necessaria.’

956, 957. Et tempestatem, terrâ cœloque coortam,

In cœlum terramque remote jure faceffunt.

In some of the manuscripts, *tempestates*, *coortam*, and *remota*, appear ; but these expressions do not seem to be genuine.

1177. ————— mullabat tacito Medicina timore.

This *prosopepœia* is certainly beautiful ; and it therefore receives very high praise from one who is a warm admirer of classical beauty.

1262, 1263. Multa, siti prostrata, viam per, proque voluta,

Corpora, filanos ad aquarum *strueta*, jacebant.

The word *strueta* is introduced, conjecturally, for *strata* ; but this freedom is perhaps objectionable, as it may be alleged, that the bodies lay near the fountains as they fell, and were not heaped or piled up by the survivors. The note upon the word in question follows :

‘ *Strueta* : sic ausus equidem sum reponere, conjecturâ nixus, pro librorum omnium dictione *strata* ; ut ab Lucretio amolirer repetitionem, quæ turpissimam sermonis paupertatem, et defectum ingenii, proloquitur. Ubinam vero illi mortuorum acervi erant

accumulandi, nisi ad canales ac scaturigines aquarum, quo eadem fitis ardentissima morbosos omnes compellebat? Videamus etiam interea, an non Virgiliani versus, in geo. iii. 556. nostræ divinationi non patrocinentur:

Jamque *catervatim* dat stragem, atque *adgerat* ipsis

In stabulis turpi dilabſa *cadavera* tabo.

Quem locus Thucydidis parallelus comitetur: — *ἀλλὰ καὶ νεκροὶ ἐπ' ἀλλήλοις ἀποθνήσκοντες ἐκείντο, καὶ ἐν ταῖς ὁδοῖς ἐκάλινδοντο, καὶ περὶ τὰς κρήνας ἀπάσας, ἡμιθνήτες, τῇ τὸ ὕδατος ἐπιθυμίᾳ.* —

Denique, confusio vocabulorum *structus* et *stratus* usitatis librariorum aberrationibus annumeranda est.

1278. ————— totus *repedabat* —

Trepidabat is, with reason, banished from this verse: and Mr. Wakefield has, in a note, ably and satisfactorily defended a happy emendation in his edition of Horace, (Od. i. 37. 24.)

Classe citâ *repedavit* oras,

for *reparavit*.

The last line of the poem begins, in one copy, with *rorantes*: and *deferrentur* appears in another: but the verse, more properly constituted, is —

Rixantes potius quam corpora deferrentur.

An index highly useful to those who wish to refer to the notes for the purposes of philological criticism, and another which contains all the words in the poem, conclude the work.

That this publication exhibits, in a strong point of view, the erudition and talents of the editor, no person, we think, will be disposed to deny. The sagacity and judgement of the critic, and the learning and diligence of the scholar, appear in these volumes to great advantage. Many difficult passages in the Lucretian poem are happily explained; and the course of the argument is, in general, traced with skill. But we cannot refrain from observing, that a want of moderation is manifested in the strictures on the emendatory and conjectural labors of former editors, who are frequently censured in the most gross and contumelious terms. Many readers, however, may consider these animadversions as the effusions of vivacity and spirit, by which an occasional poignancy is imparted to the notes.

In addition to the remarks and criticisms which more immediately relate to the poem on the universe, Mr. Wakefield has proposed a great number of alterations for the improvement of the works of the generality of the Greek and Roman writers. Though some of these may not be deemed real emendations, many are worthy of being considered in that light.

Upon the whole, we may, without hazard of contradiction, pronounce this edition of Lucretius the best that has appeared, and can recommend the notes as a valuable fund of classical criticism,

IN entering upon the fifth volume of this useful work, we meet with

I. 'An Account of two Cases of Popliteal Aneurism. By Mr. Thompson Forster, Surgeon on the Staff of the Army, and Surgeon to Guy's Hospital.'

Here are two instances of the successful treatment of popliteal aneurism in Mr. Hunter's mode.

II. 'An Account of the good Effects of Opium in the Case of a Person poisoned by Digitalis. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D.'

The effects of digitalis, in this case, were counterbalanced by opium, by ipecacuanha, and extract. cicuta: poison was expelled by poison. We have seen many instances in which a little wine was equally and more quickly beneficial.

III. 'Some Observations on the Diseases that occurred on board the Ship Europa, in the Service of the hon. East India Company, during a Voyage from England to and from Madras and Bengal. By Mr. John Watson, late Surgeon of the said Ship, and now Surgeon at Wellingborough, in Northamptonshire.'

This is a plain and judicious description. The ordinary fever of tropical climates was increased and a little altered, by a convalescent from a ship fever, received on board in the beginning of the voyage. The usual remittent of hot and malarious situations, with dysentery, supervened. The practice was, however, successful.

IV. 'Case of a compound Dislocation of the Tibia and Fibula, accompanied with a Fracture and Loss of a considerable Portion of the Astragalus, and likewise with a Fracture of the Thigh Bone; with Remarks. By Mr. James Rumsey, Surgeon at Amertham [*Agmondesham*] in Buckinghamshire.'

The fracture of the thigh prevented the intended amputation; and the cure was at last completed. Some useful observations, respecting the events of similar disasters in the country, opposed to the events when the patients are in a crowded city, are added.

V. 'A Case of violent Distortion of the Foot, occasioned by a Rotation of the Astragalus, in consequence of a Fall, and accompanied with a Laceration of the Integuments at the outer Ankle, and Exposure of a Portion of the Fibula. By Mr. William Guy, Surgeon at Chichester.'

This case succeeded completely, without amputation.

VI. 'Cases of the Urticaria or Nettle Rash, with Observations; by T. M. Winterbottom, M. D. Physician to the Settlement at Sierra Leone.'

The urticaria of nosologists is represented as an eruptive disease from a given specific infection, following a fever. It

may, however, be doubted whether such a disease exists, though we think we have seen instances of it.

VII. 'An Account of the Effects of Vitriolic *Æther* in a Case of spasmodic Affection of the Stomach; and in two Cases of Intermittent Fever. By Mr. William Davidson, Apothecary in London.'

That a nervous affection of the stomach, or the paroxysm of an intermittent, should be stopped by a powerful antispasmodic, is not very surprising.

VIII. 'An Account of the poisonous Effects of the Seeds of the *Datura Stramonium* Linn. By Mr. James Johnson, Surgeon at Lancaster.'

The effects of these seeds are now well known: though pernicious, they are seldom fatal. Some cases, recorded by Dr. Rush and other respectable practitioners, are subjoined.

IX. 'A Case of Hydrophobia. By Mr. Richard Simmons, Surgeon to the British Lying-in Hospital.'

Nothing is added to the history of the disease from this case, which terminated fatally.

X. 'An Account of a Child born without Organs of Generation. By Mr. Edward Ford, F. A. S. Surgeon to the Westminster General Dispensary.'

The child, though apparently a female, was born without uterus, ovaria, or vagina. The rectum ended in an anterior cavity, near the orifice of the meatus urinarius.

XI. 'Case of Apoplexy in a pregnant Woman; with Observations. By Mr. Philip Williams, Surgeon at Rugby in Warwickshire.'

When the uterus was beginning to dilate, in the last month of pregnancy, an effusion of blood took place in the brain; and the woman instantly died. The circumstance of a determination to the head, in the last months, is not very uncommon. We have seen it produce restlessness, delirium, and even somnolency, the cause of which is uncertain. We have sometimes suspected, that it arose from an obstruction of the circulation through the cord, as we have observed it when the rope has been twisted round the child's neck, or where the child has suddenly died. In this instance, there were two children, each presenting itself præternaturally; one with the breech foremost, the other with one foot. These presentations must have impeded the circulation in the cord; and the children were seemingly dead before the accident. But what effect either might have had, further observation must determine. We trust, that our hint will not be wholly lost.

Some extracts from the Transactions of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh, and from the Memoirs of the Royal Irish Academy, with the usual catalogue of books, conclude the fifth volume.

The first article of the sixth volume is by Mr. Winterbottom, on the use of arsenic in the intermittents of tropical climates. He finds it succeed equally well in these, as in the more temperate regions, except that the strength is not so soon recovered. From a short account of the weather, preceding the appearance of these diseases, we find them following the rainy season, beginning as remittents, and terminating about November and December in intermittents. The arsenic does not succeed in the night fevers from irritability, which are so regular as often to mislead the practitioner.—He adds an interesting history of the use of arsenic as a remedy; but, in encouraging larger doses, and a more general use of this drug, he is less judicious than he is in other parts of the essay.

II. 'An Account of the good Effects of a Solution of Sal Ammoniac, in Vinegar, employed, as a topical Application, in Cases of lacerated Wounds. By Mr. Henry Yates Carter, Surgeon at Kettleby, near Wellington, in Shropshire.'

The application, now recommended, was hinted at in the second volume of the 'Medical Facts.' It is at present enforced from having been found useful in very violent lacerated wounds, compound fractures, &c.

III. 'Case of a diseased Kidney. By the same.'

This is a case of nephritis, terminating in suppuration, in consequence of external bruises; but the kidney had certainly before been diseased from gravel. The cause is singular, and the history deserves to be recorded. The *violent* pain, it may be remarked, occurred only *after* the suppuration.

IV. 'Case of a Gun-Shot Wound of the Head. By the same.'

A Hessian grenadier received a ball on the external canthus of the eye: it passed through the head, and came out a little below, and behind, the opposite ear. It evidently missed the optic nerve and the frontal sinus; and, as there was the advantage of a depending drain, the man recovered completely.

V. 'An Account of some extraordinary Symptoms which were apparently connected with certain morbid Alterations about the Veins and Nerves. By Mr. John Pearson, Surgeon of the Lock Hospital, and of the Public Dispensary.'

This is a curious paper. Many instances are recorded, in which small indurated tumours have been attended with much pain and general nervous complaints. It seems, from the case before us, and from some others, that they proceed from a portion of vein and nerve, included in the indurated tumour, which prevents any expansion at least of the former, and irritates the latter. The substance of our author's explanation may be found in the following extract—

'As the preceding history contains some curious and rather un-

common circumstances, I beg leave to offer a few observations upon some of them. The indurated part having been destroyed by a caustic, it was not in my power to examine its internal structure, so as to discover the true nature of the morbid alteration. I ascertained, however, that a portion of the vena saphena major, and that branch of the crural nerve which accompanies it in its course down the inside of the leg, were completely included within this tumour. This fact was clearly demonstrated after the exfoliation of the eschar; for I then saw a portion of the vein hanging down at the superior part of the sore, and the naked nerve in contact with it; and on touching the nerve with my probe, Mrs. P. instantly complained of an acutely painful sensation, similar to that which she had been accustomed to feel before the tumour was removed. I then destroyed that part of the nerve which was exposed with lunar caustic, and my patient suffered no more uneasiness. After thus proving that a vein, and a considerable ramification of a nerve, were contained within the diseased part, I proceed to observe, that the paroxysms of pain were excited by every thing that accelerated or otherwise disturbed the circulation of the blood; whether applied to the induration, or affecting the general system; as all strong exertions of the muscles, external impulse, or mental commotion. The ascent of the blood, in the veins of the lower extremities, is necessarily impeded in the state of pregnancy; and during this period, the fits of pain were always sharper, and were also of longer duration; and at the time of parturition, when the action of the heart and blood-vessels is considerably increased, Mrs. P. suffered exceedingly; for, to use her own expression, she "had all her labour pains in her leg."

'It is also highly probable that the portion of vein which passed through the tumour was unusually distended with blood at the time of the paroxysm; for upon these occasions, the morbid surface became redder than common; and the tumour was sensibly elevated. We may therefore, perhaps, venture to conclude, that the vein and the nerve being confined within a substance that could not be easily distended, whenever the vein became preternaturally turgid, the nerve was compressed between its parietes and the internal surface of the induration; and that consequently the symptoms were connected with this state of the part.' Vol. vi. p. 99.

VI. 'An Account of the Extraction of an extraneous Substance from the Rectum. By Mr. William Blair, Surgeon of the Lock Hospital, and of the General Dispensary in Newman Street, St. Mary-la-bonne.'

Næ ille, Herc'le, magno conatu magnas nugas dixerit.

VII. 'A Case of Aneurism of the Crural Artery. By Mr. Thompson Forster, Surgeon on the Staff of the Army, and Surgeon to Guy's Hospital.'

The aneurism was seated in the upper part of the thigh, almost as high up as where the profunda passes off. The event was fortunate.

VIII. 'An Account of a Key Instrument of a new Construction; with Observations on the Principles on which it acts, in the Extraction of Teeth, and on the Mode of applying it. By Mr. Robert Clarke, Surgeon at Sunderland, in the County of Durham.'

This article is incapable of abridgment, and unintelligible without the plate, which however is not a very *striking* illustration of the improvement.

IX. 'An Account of a new Species of Swietenia (Mahogany), and of Experiments and Observations on its Bark, made with a View to ascertain its Powers, and to compare them with those of Peruvian Bark, for which it is proposed as a Substitute: being an Abstract of a Paper on this Subject, addressed to the Honourable Court of Directors of the United East-India Company. By William Roxburgh, M. D.'

The account of the species of cincona (which, though concise, is correct), we should here notice, if we had not a more full description before us in another publication, which we shall soon examine.

X. 'An Account of the Effects of Mahogany Wood in Cases of Diarrhoea. By Mr. Francis Hughes, Surgeon of the General Infirmary at Stafford.'

All the species of Swietenia are astringent, as well as all the genera of its natural order.

The remainder of the volume consists of extracts from philosophical collections.

The seventh is more bulky than any of the former volumes; and the extracts from the transactions of different societies are mingled with the original communications, instead of following them.

I. 'Practical Observations on the Treatment of acute Diseases; particularly those of the West Indies. By William Wright, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh, and of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh; and Physician to the Forces in the West Indies.'

These observations begin with some account of the success of cold washing in nervous fever; a Persian practice, which Chardin describes in speaking of the fever at Gomron, and of which De Hahn gave a favourable report when it was applied to the malignant remittent of Breslaw. It is said to be very useful in typhus, except where there are infarctions of the viscera, or inflammations of any internal organ.—The practice in the yellow fever of hot climates is next detailed, without any considerable variation from the accounts of the best writers. This fever, our author contends, is not a

remittent, because remittents are not infectious: but, if our recollection does not fail us, many instances of infectious remittents have occurred. — Some remarks on the pleurisy, peripneumony, hepatitis, and dysentery, follow.

II. ‘Facts relative to the Origin of intermittent Fevers. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D.’

Dr. Cullen has observed that intermittents arise from the effluvia of marshes; but three cases occurred to Dr. Beddoes, *in winter*, where this cause was not to be discovered: Ergo, &c. Nothing can be more trifling than this reasoning. When intermittents were referred to these miasmata, it was never maintained that this was the only cause, or that it was always to be traced.

III. ‘Observations on the Nature of Corns, and the Means of removing them. By Mr. Anthony Carlisle, Surgeon to the Westminster Hospital.’

The nature of the cuticle is well explained in this article; but we do not think that the causes of corns are stated with equal correctness.

The modes of cure, recommended for corns, are these. They may be dissolved by caustic alkali, destroyed by a blister, or cured in the following manner. By cutting a hole in a piece of adhesive plaster, large enough for the corn to pass through, and placing others over it, till they rise above the apex of the corn, the pressure of the foot is brought to rest on the base; and thus the swelled inflamed part is pressed out.

IV. ‘Some Observations relative to the Angustura Bark. By Thomas Masterman Winterbottom, M. D. Physician to the Settlement at Sierra Leone.’

Our author’s abstract of his experience with the Angustura bark, in fevers, we shall transcribe.

‘In several comparative trials made with the Angustura and common Peruvian barks, in regard to their febrifuge and tonic powers, I have always found the former to be equally efficacious with the latter, and that frequently in smaller doses. In those cases, however, where it is necessary to give this medicine in substance, and in large doses, as in the remittent fever, with a view to put a stop to the return of the paroxysm, the Angustura bark could not always be given for a sufficient time, without exciting nausea; but where this effect was not produced, I have trusted the course of a remittent fever to the Angustura with the same confidence as to the Peruvian bark, which last is usually considered as a specific for that disease. It must, however, be observed, that in the cases of fever where the Angustura bark was employed, the doses were perhaps larger than might be absolutely necessary; but the fever of this country is usually so rapid in its progress, that if the paroxysms be not soon put a stop to, the remissions become obscure, or

scarcely perceptible, and the patient is suddenly carried off. I did not venture, therefore, to use it in smaller doses than what I had from experience found necessary to be given of the Peruvian bark; nor did I consider my patient as secure unless he had taken, during the time of a remission, as much of it as his stomach would bear.

‘ Towards the decline of a fever, when debility is the chief symptom, I prefer the use of the Angustura bark, in infusion, to a farther continuance of the Peruvian bark; this change is generally very agreeable to the patient; the infusion sits easy on the stomach, and is attended with the most beneficial effects in restoring the strength and appetite. I have also found Angustura bark very effectual in the cure of intermittents: but as these most commonly occur among the seamen and Nova-Scotian settlers, who are not easily induced to take a disagreeable medicine for any length of time, I have been almost always obliged to substitute the arsenical solution in place of the bark.’ Vol. vii. p. 42.

In dysentery, diarrhoea, hemicrania, and fever from irritability, it appeared very useful. We have also found it, we think, a valuable tonic in the last stages of phthisis pulmonalis.

V. ‘ An Account of a remarkable Affection of the Testes. By Mr. Widdows Golding, Surgeon at Wallingford, in Berkshire, and Member of the Corporation of Surgeons in London.’

The affection (a swelling) of the testis occurred in an epidemic fever, at Wallingford. In some of the cases, there was no reasonable suspicion of syphilis. No catarrh preceded; and no delirium attended or followed, though this symptom is considered by Dr. Darwin as almost essential.

VI. ‘ Case of a Man who castrated himself. By the same.’

The man, after his rash action, managed the wound himself. It may be supposed that he was not very dexterous; and to remedy his awkwardness was the chief business of the surgeon.

VII. ‘ Cases and Remarks on the external Application of Charcoal; by Mr. William Simmons, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons in London, and Surgeon to the Manchester Infirmary.’

Charcoal is now, we believe, generally used in foul and carious ulcers; and it is employed with advantage.

VIII. ‘ Case of Pins extracted from the Breast of a Woman, after remaining there sixty Years. By Mr. Henry Fryer, Surgeon at Stamford, in Lincolnshire. Communicated in a Letter to Dr. Simmons, by John Clarke, M.D, Physician in London.’

This is a singular case: the pins were forced into the breast, in a fit of mental derangement, and were only found inconvenient, when a blow had added to their irritation.

IX. 'Description of a new Key Instrument for the Extraction of Teeth. By Mr. J. Savigny, Surgical-Instrument Maker in London.'

The improvement described in the present article seems to be a valuable one.

X. 'Some Account of the Effects of the Vapour of Vitriolic Æther in Cases of Phthisis Pulmonalis. By Richard Pearson, M. D. Member of the Royal College of Physicians, London, and Physician to the general Hospital near Birmingham.'

This practitioner has found the vapour of æther, breathed through a common funnel, very useful in hectic cases. Half a drachm of the dried or powdered leaves of cicuta, macerated in about an ounce of the æther, for a few days preceding its use, will render its vapour more effectual.

XI.—XVIII. Extracts from the Philosophical Transactions, the Edinburgh Transactions, and the Memoirs of the Irish Academy.

XIX. 'An Estimate of the Excess of the Heat and Cold of the American Atmosphere beyond the European, in the same Parallel of Latitude: to which are added, some Thoughts on the Causes of this Excess. By Edward Augustus Holyoke, M. D. F. A. A. From the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.'

This article is valuable as a collection of meteorological facts, though deficient in reasoning. The writer says,

'I have from this collection (*Ephemerides Meteorologicae Pa-latinae*), formed a table of the greatest heat and greatest cold, and of the mean of the greatest heat and cold, for a course of years, of twenty different cities in Europe; the southernmost of which is Rome, in lat. $41^{\circ} 53'$, a few minutes southward of Boston; and the northernmost, Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, in lat. $59^{\circ} 20'$, comprehending an extent of upwards of 17° of latitude; and from Rochelle, on the western coast of France, to Buda, the capital of Hungary, comprehending 20° of longitude; which takes in all the middle region of Europe. To which are added, my own observations of the greatest heat and cold, &c. made at Salem, in Massachusetts.

'By this table, it appears, that of the twenty European cities mentioned in it, the thermometer was highest at Wartzburg, in the circle of Franconia, viz. $102^{\circ} 4'$, which falls short of our greatest heat above 3 degrees. The greatest degree of cold happened at Sagan, a city in the western borders of Silesia. There

the mercury in the thermometer sunk to $-21^{\circ} 32'$, which exceeds our greatest cold at Salem by $10^{\circ} 3'$; but is just as low, as we were informed by the public prints at the time, though I know not upon what authority, that the thermometer fell at Hartford, in Connecticut, and at New York, in the month of January, 1786. But what is most to our purpose, the mean of the greatest heat in all those places, taken collectively, for the period noted in the third column of the table, amounted to no more than $+ 86^{\circ} 41'$, which is more than 10° short of our greatest heat at Salem; and the mean of the greatest cold in these twenty cities, amounted to $3^{\circ} 31'$, which is short of the mean of our greatest cold upwards of 5 degrees.

‘ But in order to determine the difference between our heat and cold, and the European, in the same latitude, we must compare with those cities, which are situated in latitudes nearest our own, viz. Padua, Marseilles, and Rome. We find by the table, that the mean of their greatest heat falls short of ours $5^{\circ} 62'$, $7^{\circ} 42'$, and $11^{\circ} 59'$, respectively. We also find the mean of the greatest cold of these three cities is less than ours by $19^{\circ} 41'$, $29^{\circ} 92'$, and $35^{\circ} 88'$, respectively. Further, the mean of the greatest heat of these three cities, taken collectively, which is $88^{\circ} 1'$, deducted from the mean of our greatest heat, which is $97^{\circ} 02'$, leaves a difference of $8^{\circ} 92'$ hotter. And the mean of the greatest cold of these cities, being $25^{\circ} 96'$, taken from the mean of our greatest cold, $-2^{\circ} 42'$, gives a difference of $28^{\circ} 38'$ colder.

‘ The air of America then, in our latitude, is hotter in summer (when hottest) by 10 degrees of Fahrenheit’s thermometer, and colder in winter (when coldest) by 5 degrees, than the whole middle region of Europe taken collectively, whose mean latitude is about 49° or 50° , that is, about 7 or 8 degrees more northerly than Boston.

‘ Again, the air in America is hotter in summer, by upwards of 8 degrees, and colder in winter, by 28 degrees, than those parts of Europe, which lie nearly in the same latitude.’ Vol. vii. p. 226.

The explanation is in some measure difficult. The usual reason drawn from the numerous lakes, is shown not to be well-founded; and Dr. Holyoke thinks that the excess of heat and cold may arise from the greater dryness of the air. The air of America is certainly more dry than that of Europe; but that it is more dephlogisticated, as our author endeavours to prove, is very doubtful; and even if this point were admitted, it would add little to his argument. His reasoning on the subject is very delusive. The evaporation is certainly greater than in Europe; the quantity of rain greater. In America, there are more clear fair days; fewer cloudy, foggy, and rainy ones. These facts, however, add as little to

the explanation. The reason seems to be, that, while in America, as well as in Europe, westerly winds chiefly prevail, in the latter these blow over a vast ocean, and, in the former, over an extensive continent. The western coast of America, on this account, is warmer than the eastern coast of Asia, in nearly the same latitudes; and Stockholm than Tobolski, which differs little in latitude from it. A remarkable assertion, which, if well-founded, might lead to some curious speculations, is that, in the neighbourhood of woods of pine and other *evergreens*, frosts appear earlier, and continue longer, than in the neighbourhood of trees whose leaves are deciduous.

XX. 'An Account of an uncommon Case of Emphysema; and of an external Abscess, the Contents of which were discharged by coughing.'

In this case, one of the vesicles in the lungs seemingly burst in coughing.

XXI. 'Account of a Locked Jaw. By Aaron Dexter, M. D. F. A. A.'

This case ended fatally, after the trial of almost every remedy usually recommended in similar complaints.

XXII. 'An Account of the Effects of Negative Electricity, in Cases of Burns. By Mr. John Vinall.'

Here, perhaps, the fancy predominated in exaggerating the violence of the burns, and representing the relief as more sudden and complete than it really was.

XXIII. 'Description of a Case of Hydrocephalus. By M. Tenghil, Professor of Surgery at Quiers.'

This case is very uncommon. A tumour depended from behind the occiput, where an opening of the bone and a fungous excrescence were observed. Its nature, therefore, was the same with that of the spina bifida; its situation different. We do not recollect to have ever met with the like instance, though we have seen one where we suspect a similar morbid change had taken place at the bottom of the sacrum.

XXIV. 'Account of a Case in which a Stone, formed in one of the Kidneys, was extracted through an Abscess in the Back. By Herman Schützererants, M. D.'

This is not a singular case.

XXV. 'An Account of the poisonous Quality of the Juice of the Root of Jatropha Manihot, or bitter Cassada; and of the Use of Cayenne Pepper in counteracting the Effects of this and some other poisonous Substances; with Remarks on the Efficacy of the Spigelia Anthelmia in Worm Cases. By James Clark, M. D. Physician in Dominica.'

Boiling the cassada diminished its deleterious effects, with-

out destroying them. Cayenne pepper is a very powerful antidote to all narcotic poisons.

XXVI. 'An Account of some Experiments made with a View to ascertain the comparative Quantities of amylaceous Matter, yielded by the different Vegetables most commonly in Use in the West India Islands. By the same.'

Though there are many nutritious vegetables in the West-Indian islands, they do not all produce starch. Those which our author tried, we shall mention in the order in which they were found most productive of this saccula; 1. *Jatropha janipha*, sweet cassada; 2. *Arum esculentum*, eddoes; 3. *Jatropha manihot*, bitter cassada, from whose starch tapioca is prepared; 4. *Musa paradisiaca*, plantanes, not ripe; 5. *Dioscorea bulbifera*, Guinea yam; 6. *Convolvulus batatas*, West-Indian potatoe; 7. *Solanum tuberosum*, Irish potatoe, used as a standard; 8. *Dioscorea triphylla*, couch-couch or yampee; 9. *Maranta arundinacea*, arrow-root.

XXVII. 'A fatal Instance of the poisonous Effects of the *Ceanothe Crocata* Linn. or Hemlock Dropwort. By Robert Graves, M. D. Physician at Dorchester.'

This fatal accident arose from swallowing the juice of *ceanthe crocata*, instead of the water parsnip.

Selections from the most celebrated Foreign Literary Journals and other Periodical Publications. 2 Vols. 8vo. 185. Boards. Debrett. 1798.

THESE volumes, we understand from the advertisement, were published in consequence of the favourable reception given to the *Varieties of Literature* *. The papers which they contain relate to various subjects, and are consequently of various importance. In a work of this nature, methodical arrangement cannot be expected; but the various essays of M. Meiner, upon the superstitions and customs of savages, ought, we think, to have been given in continued order, instead of being carelessly scattered through the two volumes. The favourite opinion of this writer is, that there exists an original difference in the races of mankind. The people of Celtic origin are the most elevated; and with these he classes the northern tribes of Gothic descent. These nations alone, he says, have invented and perfected arts and sciences, and

* See Vol. XVI. New Arr. p. 274.

when they were sunk, revived them. The Slavonian nations are the next in rank ; the orientals are third in this scale of mental excellence ; and the last and most degraded are the nations and tribes of Mongolian pedigree. Proportioned to their mental inferiority is their physical insensibility.

Such is the theory of M. Meiner ; and, like most theorists, he has wrested facts to suit his hypothesis. The fortitude with which the savage endures the most acute yet tedious torments, is attributed to his coarse organisation : the women are said to bring forth as easily as the females of tigers and lions ; and the more they are capable of sustaining fatigue, hunger, pain, and other physical inconveniences, the more they resemble beasts. In these representations there may be some truth, but there is assuredly much of the spirit of a framer of systems. Habits of savage life will produce this patience : the speculator may find it among his favoured Goths and Celts ; and the death-song of an American savage might have reminded him of Regner Lothbrog. The following anatomical remarks, however, if indeed they are founded upon experiments sufficiently numerous, are of some importance to the author's system.

‘ The heads of real negroes differ from the heads of the naturally formed Europeans as much in their size as in their shape. The former are considerably larger, as all the parts which are destined to animal functions, the cheek-bones, the jaws, the muscles for biting and the teeth, are incomparably stronger in negroes than in Europeans. Whereas the skull, and particularly the occiput, the sinciput, the brain-pan, and the brain are in negroes many degrees less, as the passage from the back of the head to the neck is much flatter than in men of our quarter of the globe. The heads of the negroes are on an average longer and more pointed, and the brain more crummy and firm : which properties have been frequently observed in silly and frantic people in Europe. Ears, lips, tongue and chops, with the apertures of the eye-holes, the nose-holes and the auditory passage, are larger in negroes than in Europeans ; the flat nose, on the contrary, and the apertures of the deep-sunk eyes or eyelids are in the same proportion less. In consequence of the peculiarities of the negro form, just mentioned, the high cheek-bones, the prominent chin, and the long face, hollowed out as it were, the negroes, according to the remark of all voyagers, have an ape-like appearance. The skin of the negro is not only blacker, but is considerably thicker than with other men ; and no less characteristic than the glossy and thick skin, are the fine, dry, and black woolly hair and the disgusting effluvia of the negroes, which is preserved in their descendants of clearer colour, as long, and often longer than the shades of the negroe-hue. Attentive anatomo-

mists likewise take notice, on the dissection of fresh negroe-carca-
ses, of a peculiar ill-savour, which seems to partake of the canine
smell. The shoulders, and especially the hips, and their diameter,
are smaller, and the hands and feet flatter than in Europeans. In-
deed among the negroes are particularly large, almost gigantic per-
sons; but upon the whole they are smaller and more compressed
of stature than the Europeans. Even the antients observed in the
negroes the out-bent knee, and the protuberant shin-bone as pecu-
liar to them. The calves of the legs are much smaller and higher,
than in well-set Europeans; but in general the negroes are rounder,
plumper, and more spongy than the Europeans: by which plump
and spongy body they are easily distinguishable from the neigh-
bouring Moors. To pass over the other characteristics remarked
by M. Sommering of the negro-form, there is however one that
ought not to be omitted, that the skull of the negro is much thicker
or stronger, and the nerves departing the brain much coarser, than
in Europeans.' Vol. i. p. 280.

We observe that M. Meiner has not noticed the opinion of
Volney, that the first learned nation was a community of
blacks.

There is an interesting paper upon the Esthonians in the first
volume: but, in this, we were surprised to find the melody of
English poetry estimated by the 'little airs in the Lady's Ma-
gazine, which treat mostly of love and the pastoral life, and
therefore are of the tender species.'

The account of the earthquake in Calabria, in 1783, con-
tains curious particulars of that calamitous event. We ex-
tract from it the passage respecting the fore-knowledge of im-
pending danger among animals.

'Much more remarkable undoubtedly were the presentiments
which were seen in living creatures. Man alone remained free
from these forefeelings; neither on his body nor on the cheerful-
ness of his mind had it the smallest influence; his nervous system
was not agitated by what excited the most tormenting disquietude
in the other animals;—a proof how much more acute the percep-
tive faculty through the outward senses is in the brutes than in
mankind. But even among the brutes a vast difference was here
perceived. With some it displayed itself sooner, quicker and with
greater vehemence; with others, later, more slowly and in a gen-
tler degree. These occurrences are too extraordinary to admit of
neglecting to communicate to you what I know for certain of them.
The fish in the sea appeared shortly before, as well as during the
whole of this calamitous period, to be in one continued panic;
they darted about in the water, and rushed in greater quantities
than at other times into the nets of the fishermen, and paid for
their foreboding by a speedier death. The birds flew backwards

and forwards, screaming, in the air, as if pursued by some enemy; and even seemed less subtle in avoiding the snares of mankind: the same perturbation was also observed in geese, pigeons, and the other domestic fowls. Among the quadrupeds, the dog and the ass appeared to be the most and the earliest affected by this presentiment: they ran about affrighted, with wildly staring eyes, and filled the air with dreadful cries and yells. Horses, oxen, mules, and other animals of the larger kinds, were seized with a universal tremor, spurned the earth, neighing and bellowing, erected their ears, and rolled around their staring and suspicious eyes. When the dreadful moment actually came on, they placed their legs wide asunder on the ground, to secure themselves from falling; and yet were generally thrown down. Some strove shortly before to escape by flight, but were overtaken by the tossings of the earth, and stood short confounded and immovable. The swine seemed to exhibit the least of this forefeeling; but the cats, though later than the asses and dogs, yet very forcibly; they set up their backs and made a doleful cry; their hair bristled up, and their eyes were red and watry. Vol. i. p. 116.

In the removal of the ruins after this earthquake, the dead men were found in the attitude of resistance, the women in that of despair, except those who were with their children at the moment of the shock; and in them the feelings of maternal love were stronger than terror. In similar calamities this has usually been remarked. The narrative sometimes exceeds probability. The earth is said to have opened and caught one man by the foot, and presently a second opening released him; another is thrown into a chasm by one shock, and cast up again by a second. These appear to be the idle tales of the populace.

One of the most remarkable articles in the selection is the doctrine of John Peter Craft—'That a man can do whatever he will, is something more than a mere matter of speculation.' This is inserted on account of its similarity to some curious positions of one of our modern philosophers. The editor should have given us the date of this piece, and informed us whether it was written to burlesque those positions. From the subsequent passage our readers will probably imagine this to be the case.

'Even death must recoil, if thou wilt. Yea though he sat upon thy lips; and thou sayst that he shall and must yield; then he must let thee alone, till thou hast given ear to rational arguments, and accommodated thyself to the order of nature by making room for thy successors. For nature is not a mother that kills her child. To use a similitude: life is like a table at which mankind are entertained by nature. When thou hast enjoyed thy share, and

other guests come with empty stomachs; it is but reasonable thou shouldst give place; and yet it would be very indecent to shew thee the door. But, when, in all due thankfulness, thou hast drank up the last drop, wipest thy mouth, and sayest, I have enough; then death, who stands behind thee, draws the chair away.

‘But, should there be a selfish churl, who would not die at all, there is nothing to be done with such an one; but he must be let alone, till he shall feel at last, that, after long running about, sleep does him good; and he shall fall asleep of himself.’ Vol. i. p. 206.

The four dissertations on the Russian annals, by Schlötzer, are not upon a subject sufficiently interesting to the English reader, to deserve so large a portion of one of these volumes; and the Essay on Superstition, with its reasoning upon souls, can only, we think, have been translated for its absurdity.

One of the most curious papers is an account of the Deists in Bohemia. Two and fifty families, upon the publication of letters-patent by the emperor Joseph for a general toleration, presented themselves before the chief magistrate of their district, and delivered to him their confession of faith, expressive of their belief in a God, and in a future state, in which the good will be rewarded, and the sinner, according to the degree of his sins, either chastened or destroyed. They rejected Christianity, but believed that God wrote the ten commandments with his finger on the tables of stone, and at the same time on the hearts of all mankind. They were in general remarkable for their quiet behaviour and good morals; but some of their opinions respecting property and government accorded as little as their religion with the established sentiments. Bishop Hay, of Königsgrätz, examined them; and his report concerning them shows him to have possessed that charity which Christianity commands—so frequently in vain. They were banished into Transylvania, because their principles were thought dangerous; and nothing more has been heard of them.

Some of the pieces contained in these volumes might have been omitted as trifling; but the work, upon the whole, is calculated for entertainment; and it is not destitute of hints which may instruct.

Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia, for promoting useful Knowledge. Vol. III. 4to. Dilly.

THESE volumes improve in their progress; and, if patriotic zeal, eager friendship, or a venial enthusiasm, have in-

duced some authors to gratify the curiosity of the public by an earlier publication of a few of the papers, we can readily forgive the anticipation, in consideration of the motive, and allow that the generality of these articles, though before published, ought to be collected in an established national production.

The introduction consists of an 'Essay on those Inquiries in Natural Philosophy, which at present are most beneficial to the United States of North-America. By Dr. Nicholas Collin, Rector of the Swedish Churches in Pennsylvania.

In this essay, we find many observations and facts which are of importance, and with which, in Europe, we are little acquainted. Various remarks in natural history and medicine are of this kind.

Art. I. 'Conjectures concerning the Formation of the Earth, &c. in a Letter from Dr. B. Franklin to the Abbé Soulvie.'

II. 'A new and curious Theory of Light and Heat; in a Letter from Dr. B. Franklin to David Rittenhouse, Esq.'

III. 'Description of the Process to be observed in making large Sheets of Paper in the Chinese Manner, with one smooth Surface.'

IV. 'Queries and Conjectures relative to Magnetism, and the Theory of the Earth, in a Letter from Dr. B. Franklin to Mr. Bodoin.'

V. 'Explanation of a singular Phenomenon, first observed by Dr. Franklin, and not hitherto satisfactorily accounted for. In a Letter from Mr. R. Patterson to Dr. B. Rush.'

VI. 'An Account of an Earthy Substance found near the Falls of Niagara, and vulgarly called the Spray of the Falls: together with some Remarks on the Falls. By Robert M'Causlin, M. D.'

These articles have appeared in former publications.

VII. 'Observations on the Probabilities of the Duration of Human Life, and the Progress of Population, in the United States of America; in a Letter from William Barton, Esq. to David Rittenhouse, LL. D. President A. P. S.'

This article contains various facts, collected from the best authors, respecting the probabilities of life in different countries. It is, on the whole, highly interesting, though the observations must be admitted with some reserve, as their evident tendency is to exalt the salubrity of the American climate. After this precaution, we shall select the most striking facts.

'The births (estimated from the christenings) in Philadelphia in the year 1788, were 1583; and the burials, exclusive of negroes, amounted to 872. The number of negro births for this city,

as appears by the bills for the years 1789 and 1790, average 144 per annum. Supposing one-third of this number to be included in the christenings, forty-eight must be deducted from the list of births. This will give 1536 births, to 872 deaths, for the year 1788:—and, taking the average proportion of births to deaths, for four years, it gives to 100 births, $56\frac{1}{2}$ deaths. The average number of deaths, among all the white inhabitants of this city, for the three last years, is 924 per annum. The proportion of births to deaths, in the German Lutheran congregation of this city, which comprehends about one-fifth of all the white inhabitants, is, on an average of sixteen years, as one hundred births to forty-five deaths: and therefore, taking the medium of this proportion and that above stated, it gives to 100 births, $50\frac{3}{4}$ deaths. The bills, for the white inhabitants in this city, for 1789 and 1790, give the proportion as only 100 births to $49\frac{2}{3}$ deaths; and, as these bills are the most full and satisfactory of any I have yet seen, for Philadelphia, I think the births may be fairly stated as being double to the number of deaths.—At Salem in Massachusetts, on a medium of the years 1782 and 1783, the births were to the deaths, as 100 births to 49 deaths, including the still-born in the number of deaths.—Dr. Holyoke says (in the memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, Boston), that both 1782 and 1783 were sickly at Salem; — particularly the latter year, in which, during the months of May and June, the measles were epidemic. The births and deaths at Hingham, in the same state, during 54 years, gives to 100 births $49\frac{1}{2}$ deaths.—Hence it may be inferred, that, so far as deductions from these documents may be relied on, there are two births to one death, in this country.' P. 37.

The deaths, at Philadelphia, are about one in forty-five; and, in Salem, one in forty-seven. The proportion, we think, is more in favour of human life, in many towns and villages of England. The population of America has been doubled in about twenty years. Numerous instances of longevity are noticed; and various meteorological observations of the heats and colds of that continent, as well as the rapid alternations from hot to cold weather, are given from the best authority.

VIII. 'Extract of a Letter from Andrew Ellicot, to David Rittenhouse, Esq; dated at Pittsburg, November 5th, 1787, containing Observations made at Lake-Erie.'

This phenomenon is, by the seamen, called *looming*; that is, a delusive appearance of land, when persons are really at a distance from it. It is not, perhaps, with strict accuracy so called; for it was only an enlargement, and consequently an apparent approximation, of real land, by being seen through a mist, or an atmosphere peculiarly circumstanced. It was preceded, in the evening, by a fine aurora borealis. At one pe-

riod the reflection was double; and the same appearance of land was seen over the first object, with seeming water between the two images.

IX. 'An Account of the Sugar Maple-Tree of the United States, and of the Methods of obtaining Sugar from it, together with Observations upon the Advantages both public and private of this Sugar. In a Letter to Thomas Jefferson, Esq. Secretary of State to the United States, and one of the Vice Presidents of the American Philosophical Society; by Benjamin Rush, M. D. Professor of the Institutes and of Clinical Medicine in the University of Pennsylvania.'

X. 'Memoir of Jonathan Williams, on the Use of the Thermometer in discovering Banks, Soundings, &c.'

These articles have before occurred.

XI. 'An Account of the most effectual Means of preventing the deleterious Consequences of the Bite of the *Crotalus Horridus*, or Rattle-Snake. By Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D.'

This essay is too prolix, and adds little to what was formerly known. The poison of the rattle-snake seems to be soon exhausted by repeated bites, and not quickly replenished from secretion. When the wound is made in the larger blood-vessels, so that the poison mixes with the blood, it is very soon fatal. When it is made in the cellular substance only, its deleterious effects are prevented by a tight ligature above the part, by cauterising the wound, and applying some acrid vegetable which will produce a serous discharge from it: an internal warm sudorific is afterwards given. All the boasted Indian remedies for the bite seem to meet in these points.

XII. 'Magnetic Observations, made at the University of Cambridge (Massachusetts), in the year 1785. By Dr. S. Williams.'

XIII. 'Accurate Determination of the right Ascension and Declination of β . Bootes, and the Pole Star: in a Letter from Mr. Andrew Ellicott to Mr. R. Patterfon.'

These articles cannot conveniently be abridged.

XIV. 'Account of several Houses in Philadelphia, struck with Lightning, on June 7th, 1789. By Mr. David Rittenhouse, and Dr. John Jones.'

XV. 'An Account of the Effects of a Stroke of Lightning on a House furnished with two Conductors, — in a Letter from Messrs. David Rittenhouse, and Francis Hopkinson, to Mr. R. Patterfon.'

In the first instance, the lightning struck only those chimneys which had fire in them, attracted probably by the contrary electricity of the smoke; in the second, the conductors, perhaps, were not deep enough.

XVI. 'Experiments and Observations on Evaporation in cold Air, by C. Wistar, M. D.'

We can perceive nothing in this diffuse inquiry but varied forms of the well-known fact, that the vapour of any fluid, rising in a colder medium, becomes visible smoke.

XVII. 'New Notation of Music, in a Letter to Francis Hopkinson, Esq. by M. R. Patterson.'

As the fusible metal types, for printing music, are not common in the United States, and engraving is dear, Mr. Patterson proposes a new notation of music by letters and arbitrary marks. A specimen is added, but it seems inapplicable to the more complex systems of the German or Italian music.

XVIII. 'Observations on the Theory of Water-Mills, &c. by W. Waring.'

Theory and practice have been greatly at variance in wheel-work. In Mr. Waring's opinion the error seems to have lain in supposing the momentum of the water in the duplicate ratio of its relative velocity, while he endeavours to show, that it is in the simple direct proportion of the relative velocity: the latter is the difference of the absolute velocities of the water and wheel, or that with which the former overtakes the latter. This correction, he thinks, will bring the theory and the experiments to coincide. A continuation of this essay occurs in the XXXIVth article.

XIX. 'Astronomical Observations. Communicated by David Rittenhouse.'

XX. 'A Letter from Dr. Rittenhouse to Mr. Patterson, relative to a Method of finding the Sum of the several Powers of the Sines, &c.'

XXI. 'Index Floræ Lancastriensis, Auctore Henrico Muhlenberg, D. D.'

XXII. 'Investigation of the Power of Dr. Barker's Mill, as improved by James Rumsey, with a Description of the Mill, by W. Waring.'

For these articles we refer our readers to the work, as they are incapable of abridgment.

XXIII. 'A Thermometrical Journal of the Temperature of the Atmosphere and Sea, on a Voyage to and from Oporto, with explanatory Observations thereon.'

It seems, from this journal, to be clearly shown, that the temperature decreases quickly and sensibly on approaching land; so that the thermometer must become an useful instrument at sea, preparatory to the use of the lead. In approaching small islands, the change of temperature is more inconsiderable, but sufficiently sensible.

XXIV. 'First Memoir of Observations on the Plants denominated Cryptogamick. By M. de Beauvois.'

This is the first of a series of interesting essays, by M. de Beauvois. He endeavours to establish the position of Harvey,

omne ex ovo, which every day's experience contributes to confirm; and he finds reason to distrust, on the subject of mosses, the observations of all his predecessors, particularly Hedwig.

XXV. 'A Letter from Major Jonathan Heart, to Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D. Containing Observations on the ancient Works of Art, the Native Inhabitants, &c. of the Western Country.'

The works, in the western part of America, supposed to be the remains of fortifications, have engaged much of the attention of philosophers. That they are fortifications, must be considered as *gratis dictum*: few have seen them; and these may have written not what observation, but what fancy, dictated. That they are the defensive works of a civilised race, is very doubtful. A fanciful author has caught the hint, and adduced it to favour his system of the Welsh Indians, the descendants of the followers of prince Madoc. But we may observe, that, if the Welsh Indians multiplied so far, with so many of the resources of civilised life, as to have erected the fortresses of which these are the remains, no Indian nation could have conquered them; and they would by this time have overspread the western part of the continent. We cannot therefore avoid the suspicion already hinted, that fancy has misled the observers, and given them a delusive view of regular fortresses in the irregular sinking and retraction of soft earth.

XXVI. 'An Account of some of the principal Dies employed by the North American Indians. Extracted from a Paper, communicated by the late Mr. Hugh Martin.'

This is an important paper.

XXVII. 'An Account of the beneficial Effects of the Cassia Chamæcrista in recruiting worn-out Lands, and in enriching such as are naturally poor: together with a botanical Description of the Plant. By Dr. James Greenway, of Dinwiddie-County, in Virginia.'

The cassia chamæcrista is a bean, whose numerous seeds and luxuriant herbage meliorate the ground. If corn and oats are alternately sown in the same ground, its period of growth prevents it from suffering by the sickle or scythe. It propagates spontaneously, and more than compensates the exhausting power of the crops.

XXVIII. 'An Account of a Hill, on the Borders of N. Carolina, supposed to have been a Volcano. In a Letter from a Continental Officer, residing in that Neighbourhood, to Dr. J. Greenway, near Petersburg, in Virginia.'

This is certainly a remain of one of the few volcanos found within the territories of the United States.

XXIX. 'An Account of a poisonous Plant, growing spontaneously in the southern Part of Virginia. Extracted from a Paper, communicated by Dr. James Greenway, of Dinwiddie-County, in Virginia.'

The plant is the *cicuta venenosa*, apparently a violent narcotic, and alone capable of what the antients endeavoured to effect by a compound; for the hemlock which they used was supposed to be the *cicuta*, united with anodynes; a composition which would destroy a person without exciting inflammation or convulsions.

XXX. 'Description of a Machine for measuring a Ship's Way: in a Letter from Francis Hopkinson, Esq. to Mr. John Vaughan.'

This is a more simple mean of obtaining the same information that may be derived from the more complex method, recommended in the second volume of this work.

XXXI. 'An Inquiry into the Question, whether the *Apis Mellifica*, or true Honey-Bee, is a Native of America. By Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D.'

The arguments in this essay, to prove that the honey-bee is not a native of America, are strong and cogent. The Indian name, *viz.* the white man's fly, is a striking argument.

XXXII. 'An Account of a Comet, in a Letter to Mr. R. Patterfon, by David Rittenhouse, Esq.'

This is a comet of little importance.

XXXIII. 'Cadmus, or a Treatise on the Elements of written Language, illustrating, by a Philosophical Division of Speech, the Power of each Character, thereby mutually fixing the Orthography and Orthoepey. With an Essay on the mode of teaching the Surd, or Deaf, and consequently Dumb, to speak. By Wm. Thornton, M. D. Honored with the Magellanic Gold Medal, by the Philosophical Society, in December, 1792.'

We cannot speak very favourably of the proposal contained in the present essay, or concur with the author in thinking it expedient. The sounds of our letters are undoubtedly too numerous and irregular; but the rashness of innovation, which would, to remedy the inconvenience that few feel, overturn the whole system of orthography, we cannot approve. The supposed advantages of the plan, however, we will communicate to our readers, that they may judge of its importance.

' 1st. Travellers and voyagers would be enabled to give such perfect vocabularies of the languages they hear, that they would greatly facilitate all future intercourse. 2dly. Foreigners would, with the assistance of books alone, be able to learn the language in their closets, when they could not have the benefit of masters; and would be able to converse through the medium of books, which at present are of no service whatever, in learning to speak a language: and if this were to be adopted by the Americans, and not by the English, the best English authors would be reprinted in

America, and every stranger to the language even in Europe, who thinks it of more consequence to speak the English correctly, than to write it with the present errors, would purchase American editions, and would be ashamed to spell incorrectly, when he could acquire the mode of spelling well; for he would not be partial to difficulty, and would examine the old and new modes with more philosophy, than our blind prejudice will allow us to make the test of reason.

‘ 3d. Dialects would be utterly destroyed, both among foreigners and peasants.

‘ 4th. Every one would write with a perfectly correct orthography.

‘ 5th. Children, as well as all the poorer classes of people, would learn to read in so short a time, and with so little trouble, having only to acquire the thirty letters, that this alone ought to silence all the objections that can be brought, and, particularly with the foregoing reasons, must be deemed more than “equivalent to the confusion and perplexity of such an alteration.” But, independent of what is said above, I admit neither confusion nor perplexity to be the consequences of such a change; those who were never before taught to read, could have no idea of any other method, and those who now read would find no more difficulty in the two modes, than is found in reading by any secret character. Even short-hand writers, if in practice, find no difficulty in reading words which do not contain a single common vowel: simple marks are used, and they attend not to the present absurd orthography of any word: how much more easy then to read words which contain the symbols of every sound, and especially when most of the common characters are used! besides, those whose thirst after knowledge is quenched, may hereafter amuse themselves with the books now published.’ P. 272.

Some judicious observations, on the means of teaching the deaf and the dumb to speak, follow.

XXXIV. ‘ Observations on the Theory of Water-Mills, by W. Waring.’

This article has been already noticed.

XXXV. ‘ An Improvement on Metallic Conductors or Lightning-rods; in a Letter to Dr. David Rittenhouse, President of the Society, from Robert Patterson of Philadelphia. Honored with the Magellanic Premium, by an Award of the Society in December 1792.’

The proposal is to make the point of the conductor of black lead (to prevent its rusting or fusing), and its extremity of tin or copper. At least, if the usual metal is continued, the part buried in the earth should be covered with a paste of powdered black lead, and be imbedded in a mass of charcoal.

XXXVI. 'An easy and expeditious Method of dissipating the noxious Vapour commonly found in Wells and other subterraneous Places; by Ebenezer Robinson, of Philadelphia.'

This method is certainly very easy; for it consists only in conveying air to the lower part of a well by means of a pair of bellows, and a long tube reaching to the bottom.

XXXVII. 'A Method of draining Ponds in level Grounds, by Jesse Higgins, of Delaware.'

This is nearly what Dr. Anderson styles *tapping* the ground, viz. forming a communication between the water and the stratum of sand which usually lies under clay. The water then drains off, and sinks through the sand.

XXXVIII. 'Observations on the Severity of the Winter, 1779, 1780; by the Rev. Matthew Wilson of Lewis, dated 22d June, 1780.'

The moles, bees, frogs, shell-fish, bugs, musquitos, grasshoppers, and a great proportion of the snakes, died. The fish were found dead or dying on the water with the air-bladders greatly distended. In the vegetable kingdom, the cold was equally destructive.

XXXIX. 'A Description of a new Standard for Weights and Measures; in a Letter from Mr. John Cooke, of Tipperary in Ireland, to Thomas Jefferson, Esq.'

Our author thinks that the pendulum, as a standard of measure, is uncertain and incorrect; and he therefore proposes the following plan.

'THEOREM.—If there be a cubic vessel with an aperture in the bottom, which aperture is in a given ratio to the base of the vessel; and if the ratio between the weight of the water which this vessel contains when full, and the weight of the water discharged from it, through this aperture, in a given time be given, the cube itself is given.' P. 330.

The disadvantages of the pendulum are well known and guarded against or corrected: those of the present plan must be immediately obvious.

XL. 'Description of a Spring-block, designed to assist a Vessel in sailing. By Francis Hopkinson, Esq. of Philadelphia. Honored with the Magellanic Gold Medal, by an Award of the Society in December 1790.'

This paper we need not abridge.

XLI. 'A Botanical Description of the Podophyllum Diphyllum of Linnæus, in a Letter to Charles Peter Thunberg, M. D. Knight of the Order of Wasa, Professor of Medicine and Botany in the University of Upsal, &c. &c.'

There were some doubts whether the second species of podophyllum was not a species of sanguinaria. That doubt is

now removed; the supposed *P. diphyllum* is found to be a new genus. It occurs on the west of the Alleganey mountains, and belongs to the octandria monogynia of Linnæus. The root is purgative, and occasionally emetic. Perhaps, as our author suggests, it may at last be found a hybrid, a mixture of the sanguinaria and podophyllum.

Some short extracts from the observations of M. le Roy, on the construction of hospitals, and the usual list of presents, conclude the volume.

Observations on the Western Parts of England, relative chiefly to Picturesque Beauty. To which are added, a few Remarks on the Picturesque Beauties of the Isle of Wight. By William Gilpin, M. A. &c. 8vo. 1l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

MR. Gilpin seems declining *in the west*, with the mild radiance of a setting sun, which, though pleasing, leads us to regret his meridian beauty. Without a metaphor, these 'observations' are greatly inferior to the other works of our author. The picturesque scenery is lost in a crowd of heterogeneous remarks; and the technical terms, so long hackneyed by their application to every inconsiderable view, fatigue and disgust the reader. In our traveller's steps we have often trodden; and we recollect many beautiful scenes which he has not described. He proceeds from Epsom to Winchester and Salisbury. Wilton, Fonthill, Stourhead, Maiden-Bradley, and Longleat, share his attention in the way to Wells. Thence his route extends to Glastonbury Abbey, the Quantock Hills, and along the northern coasts of Somerset and Devon. After a survey of Torrington, Oakhampton, Tavistock, Launceston, and Bodmin, Plymouth and its neighbourhood occupy a great share of his attention. From Exeter he passes through Honiton, Axminster, Bridport, Dorchester, Blandford, and Lymington, to the Isle of Wight. Southampton and Bagshot close his tour.

These various places, he has examined with very unequal attention. Norbury-house, its beautiful situation, and its singular drawing-room, attract his particular notice, and receive, what is not very usual, his warm commendation. Of the drawing-room, the four sides represent as many scenes of nature's choicest representations. Those at the two ends reach from the ceiling to the base: that, on one of the sides, is natural—the view from the windows. Many remarks on the statues, &c. are subjoined; but these are too trite to add to the value of the work.

The rafts of timber, floating down the Wey, lead to a de-

scription of those of Adernach, and the fragile floats of jars down the Nile. Earnham castle, and the cathedrals of Winchester and Salisbury, are described at some length; and we meet with a few judicious and appropriate observations on Gothic ornaments. In the survey of Stone-henge, all the idle tales about the Druids and their worship are repeated. That Stone-henge was not the work of the Druids, seems to be clear from one circumstance, that those priests confined themselves to the shades of forests, and particularly the groves of oak; but this tree either never grew in that plain, or, from the shallowness of the soil, on a chalky stratum, it never could have grown there to any considerable size. Barrows undoubtedly abound there; but these appear to be of a later date than the existence of Druidism; for they are unsuitable appendages to a Druidical temple.

The writer treats copiously of Wilton, and enlarges on what it might have afforded, as well as what it offers. He also examines the sources of the numerous statues from Greece and Italy, and describes the various pictures with critical minuteness.

He gives what history and legends have preserved respecting the abbey of Glastonbury; summing up with propriety the advantages and disadvantages of similar institutions. The plain was probably, in former times, under the water either of the sea or of a lake; but we suspect that it was only occasionally inundated. A subterraneous passage is said to exist from the abbey to the Tor. The revenues of this institution were very great; and its charities and hospitality kept pace with them.

Instead of a description of Bridgewater, we find only an account of admiral Blake, who was born there; and, at Enmore castle, we are told how ancient castles were built. The description of the view from the Quantoc-hills will furnish a specimen of the manner in which Mr. Gilpin escapes from the country to his common-place book.

‘ From Enmore-castle we ascended Quantoc-hills. Our views from the heights of Pontic were chiefly inland; but from the high grounds here, as we now approached the sea, we were entertained with beautiful coast-views, which make a very agreeable species of landscape.

‘ The first scene of this kind was composed of Bridgewater-bay, and the land around it. We saw indeed the two islands of Flat-holms and Steep-holms, and the Welsh coast beyond them; but they were wrapped in the ambiguity of a hazy atmosphere, which was of no advantage to the view. Hazeiness has often a good effect in a picturesque scene. The variety of objects, shapes, and hues which compose an extensive landscape, though inharmonious in themselves, may be harmoniously united by one

general tinge spread over them. But here the land bore so small a proportion to the water, that as we could not have a picture, and expected only amusement, we wished for more distinctness. We had it soon; for before we left our station, a light breeze arising from the west swept away the vapours: the distant coast became distinct, and many a little white sail appeared in different parts of the channel, which had been lost before in obscurity.

‘The going off of mists and fogs is among the most beautiful circumstances belonging to them. While the obscurity is only partially clearing away, it often occasions a pleasing contrast between the formed and unformed parts of a landscape; and like cleaning a dirty picture, pleases the eye with seeing one part after another emerge into brightness. It has its effect also, when it goes off more suddenly.’ P. 161.

Another instance follows:

‘As we approached Barnstaple, the view from some of the high grounds is very grand, composed on one side of Barnstaple-bay, and on the other of an extensive vale; the vale of Taunton carrying the eye far and wide into its rich and ample bosom. It is one of those views which is too great a subject for painting. Art, confined by the rules of picturesque composition, must keep within the compass of inch, foot, and yard. But such slender confines cannot rouse the imagination like these extensive scenes of nature. The painter, jealous of his art, will sometimes deny this. If the picture, he tells us, be well painted, the size is nothing. His canvas (however diminutive) has the effect of nature, and deceives the eye. You are affected, says he, by a landscape seen through the pane of a window. Why may you not be equally affected by a landscape well painted within the same dimensions?’

‘It is true, the eye is frequently imposed upon. It is often purposely misled by tricks of deception. But it is not under the idea of deception, that the real artist paints. He does not mean to impose upon us, by making us believe that a picture of a foot long is an extended landscape. All he wishes is, to give such characteristic touches to his picture, as may be able to rouse the imagination of the beholder. The picture is not so much the ultimate end, as it is the medium, through which the ravishing scenes of nature are excited in the imagination.—We do indeed examine a picture likewise by the rules of picturesque composition: but this mode of examination we are not now considering. The rules of composition serve only to make the picture answer more effectually its ultimate end. We are now considering only the effect which the picture produces on the mind of the spectator, by carrying him forcibly, and yet willingly, with his eyes open, into those scenes which it describes.’ P. 175.

If the description of the natural bridge in the back settlements of Virginia had a connection with our author's subject, we should have selected it. The whole is an animated picturesque description, which, however, suffers from being physically erroneous. We shall copy humbler features, and introduce the description of the falls of the Lid.

‘ In our way, we were to pass a bridge, which, we were informed, was thrown over the rocky sides of two frightful precipices of the Lid, each eighty feet high. The idea was terrific; and we expected a very grand scene. But we were disappointed, from the omission of a single circumstance in the intelligence, which was, that the separation between these two tremendous precipices is little more than the crevice of a rock; and, in fact, we had passed it before we knew we had been upon it. It is only seen by looking over the battlements of the bridge. If the day be clear, you just discover the river foaming among rocks many fathoms below. If not, you must be content with listening to its roar. The music, however, is grand; for if the river be full, the notes swell nobly from the bottom, varied, as they are, by ascending so narrow and broken a funnel.’ P. 179.

‘ The channel of the Lid, though contracted at the bridge, soon widens, both below it and above, and would afford many beautiful scenes to those who had leisure to explore them. This river rises about three or four miles above Lidford, on the edge of Dartmore, and flowing through a barren plain, finds a small rocky barrier, through which it has, in a course of ages, worn a whimsical passage. As it issues from the check it meets with here, it falls about thirty feet into a small dell, which was not represented to us as a scene of much beauty. But a little farther the banks rise on each side; vegetation riots, the stream descends by a winding and rapid course; and the skreens, though small, are often beautifully adorned with wood and rock. By this time the river approaches the bridge, where it is lost in the narrowness of the channel, and, as I have just observed, becomes almost subterranean.

‘ From the bridge we proceeded directly to what are emphatically called the falls of Lidford, which are about three miles below. We alighted at a farm-house, and were conducted on foot to the brow of a steep woody hill, from which we had a grand view of Lidford-castle, which appeared now, at a distance, more proudly seated than it seemed to be when we rode past it. Of the river we saw nothing, but could easily make out its channel, under the abutments of grand promontories, which marked its course.

‘ Having viewed this noble landscape, we descended the hill by a difficult winding path, and at the bottom found the Lid. The appearance which the river and its appendages made here from the

lower grounds were equally pleasing, though not so grand as from the higher. Indeed no part of this magnificent scenery would be a disgrace to the wildest and most picturesque country.

'The fall of the river, which brought us hither, and which is the least considerable part of the scenery (for we had heard nothing of these noble views), is a mere garden-scene. The steep woody hill, whose shaggy sides we had descended, forms at the bottom, in one of its envelopes, a sort of little woody theatre; rather indeed too lofty when compared with its breadth, if nature had been as exact as art would have been, in observing proportion. Down the central part of it, which is lined with smooth rock, the river falls. This rocky cheek is narrow at the top, but it widens as it descends, taking probably the form of the stream, when it is full. At the time we saw it, it was rather a spout than a cascade; for though it slides down a hundred and eighty feet, it does not meet one obstruction in its whole course, except a little check in the middle. When the springs are low, and the water has not quantity enough to push itself forward in one current, I have been told, it sometimes falls in various little streams against the irregularities of the rock, and is dashed into a kind of vapoury rain, which has a good effect.

'This cascade, it seems, is not formed by the waters of the Lid, as we had supposed from its name; but by a little stream, which runs into that river, rising in the higher grounds, at the distance of about two miles from the cascade.' p. 184.

Though much is said of Plymouth and the dock-yards, the accounts are not always precise or strictly applicable. The operation of careening leads to a disquisition on the grand picturesque effects of flame in a conflagration; and we rise, in the climax, till we arrive at Gibraltar, and become, as it were, spectators of the tremendous event of burning the battering-ships of Spain. Captain Drinkwater and sir William Hamilton are great auxiliaries on this occasion, and bring a contribution of several pages. Mr. Smeaton's work, on the construction of light-houses, has been still more unreasonably taxed.

The following remarks, on the scenery of the Tamer, are just; and we shall add our author's glance at the Mississippi.

'The scenery itself, on the banks of the Tamer, is certainly good; but had it even been better, the form of the river could not have shewn it to much picturesque advantage. The reaches are commonly too long, and admit little winding. We rarely trace the course of the river by the perspective of one skreen behind another; which in river views is often a beautiful circumstance: and yet, if one of the banks be lofty, broken into large parts, and falling away in good perspective, the length of the reach

may possibly be an advantage. In some parts of the Tamer we had this grand lengthened view; but in other parts we wished to have had its continued reaches more contracted.

‘ These remarks, however, it must be observed, affect a river only in navigating it. When we are thus on a level with its surface, we have rarely more than a fore-ground; at most we have only a first distance. But when we take a higher stand, and view a remote river, lofty banks become then an incumbrance; and instead of discovering, they hide its winding course. When the distance becomes still more remote, the valley through which the river winds should be open, and the country flat, to produce the most pleasing effect.

‘ In the immense rivers that traverse continents, these ideas are all lost. As you sail up such a vast surface of water, as the Mississippi, for instance, the first striking observation is, that perspective views are entirely out of the question. If you wish to examine either of its shores, you must desert the main channel; and, knowing that you are in a river, make to one side or the other.

‘ As you approach within half a league of one of the sides, you will perhaps see stretches of sand-banks, or islands covered with wood, extending along the shore, beyond the reach of the eye, which have been formed by depredations made on the coast by the river; for when the winds rage, this vast surface of water is agitated like a sea; and has the same power over its shores. As the trees of these regions are in as grand a style as the rivers themselves, you sometimes see vast excavations, where the water has undermined the banks, in which immense roots are laid bare, and, being washed clean from the soil, appear twisted into various forms, like the gates of a cathedral.

‘ Though the banks of the Mississippi, we are told, are generally flat, you frequently see beautiful scenery upon them. Among the vast woods which adorn them, are many groves of cypresses; to which a creeping plant, called the liane, is often attached. What kind of flower it bears, I have not heard; but if it be not too profuse, it must be very ornamental: hanging from tree to tree, and connecting a whole cypress-grove together with rich festoons.

‘ These woods are interspersed also with lawns, where you see the wild deer of the country feeding in herds. As they espy the vessel gliding past, they all raise their heads at once, and standing a moment, with pricked ears, in amazement, they turn suddenly round, and darting across the plain, hide themselves in the woods.

‘ From scenes of this kind, as you coast the river, you come perhaps to low marshy grounds; where swamps, overgrown with reeds and rushes, but of enormous growth, extend through endless tracts, which a day’s sailing cannot leave behind. In these marshes

the alligator is often seen basking near the edge of the river, into which he instantly plunges on the least alarm; or perhaps you descry his hideous form creeping along the sedges, sometimes hid, and sometimes discovered, as he moves through a closer, or more open path.' P. 237.

Little of importance occurs in the description of Cornwall, or in the account of the route pursued by our author in his return through Exeter and Honiton, and of that which he says he ought to have taken — viz. by the sea-coast, which he describes on the authority of another person. The observations on sheep, as picturesque objects, and on the downs of Dorsetshire, though pleasing, are not new or curious; and the description of the country between Dorchester and Lymington displays no marks of refined taste.

The Isle of Wight is examined on the large scale from the commanding heights; but Mr. Gilpin finds little in it to commend. The husbandman has furrowed the fields in straight lines, and divided them by inclosures. The rocky scenes near the sea are grand from their altitude, seldom picturesque: their extent renders them magnificent, but their form and their colour prevent them from being beautiful. This remark is too fastidious. It is not the character of rocks to be picturesque. The outlines are either massy, when uninjured, or are too much broken into cavities by waves. If they ever assume a beautiful form, they lose their character as rocks, and fall into the scale of undulating hills. The hue is unpleasing; for, except in Alum-bay, they are uniformly white.

The plates are of the kind first introduced to the public in Mr. Gilpin's works, conveying the *effect* of the scene in modest, and sometimes appropriate, colouring. Those, however, which decorate the present volume, are very unequal to some others, and, in those places which we well know, give a very imperfect, and sometimes fallacious, idea of the prospect. A bold headland, a calm sea, massy hills, and ruins, are almost the only objects which they seem capable of representing.

On the whole, we have been little entertained or interested by this work. The descriptions are cold, concise, and often inappropriate. Recollection indeed fades at a distant period; and ideas, losing that pointed discrimination which a recent examination gives, become general and indistinct. It was after a long interval, that Mr. Gilpin, as appears from incidental circumstances, engaged in his present task. This affords rather an excuse for the defects, than a satisfactory apology for the attempt.

Considerations on the Doctrines of a Future State, and the Resurrection, as revealed, or supposed to be so, in the Scriptures: on the Inspiration and Authority of Scripture itself: on some Peculiarities in St. Paul's Epistles: on the Prophecies of Daniel and St. John, &c. to which are added, some Strictures on the Prophecies of Isaiah. By Richard Amner. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.

SOME of the most difficult and interesting parts of scripture are here discussed in a manner which does equal credit to the writer's candour and judgment. His views are directed solely by the love of truth; and, if we cannot at all times receive his interpretations, we find many useful hints tending to illustrate the subject of consideration. With regard to the resurrection, after an examination of the chief points which have usually been supposed to prove the familiarity of the ancients with this topic, he takes the negative, and supports his opinion with strong arguments and just scriptural comparisons. On the inspiration of scripture, he takes what some will call very low ground. In many cases, he does not attribute inspiration either to the matter or the manner of the apostolical writers; but, after several free remarks, he concludes,

‘ that the books now making up the volume, or canon, as it is sometimes called, of the Old and New Testament, and which is confessedly the best and most curious single book in the world, are not however all of them, nor any one of them perhaps, in all its parts, of the same equal and unvaried excellence, and of the same uniform and high authority, however this notion of them may in general have prevailed; but may be reasonably read with something more of discrimination and taste, than the teachers and pastors of most churches have in general allowed; and would perhaps be more profitably read, and with greater cordiality and acceptance, if read under the influence of a less superstitious spirit, and with more attention paid to what we feel them to be in the reading, than to any such external characters and denominations of them, as may indeed silence, but do not always satisfy the reader.

‘ And to this notion I acknowledge myself to be the more inclined, by the consideration of the manner in which the holy book, usually called the Canon, is supposed by divines to have been first put or brought together. Which was not, it seems, all at once, nor under the sanction or seal of any person or persons professing to have authority from above for this purpose; but only gradually, as it should seem, and occasionally, and by the force very much of each part; (through intrinsic worth and excellence of character, in connection with some other and more adventitious circumstances;) making its way; — until at length the whole, as we now have it,

was in general received, though not in every place at the same time, nor with the same high deference paid to every part equally: which is such an account of the matter, conformable, I think, to the representations more usually made upon the subject, as seems to me to be very favourable to such a discursive, free, and unsuperstitious use of it, as is above pleaded for, and yet, I trust, not impious: leaving abundant room to the Christian preacher and philosopher to make the utmost possible use of what he sees and feels to be excellent, with liberty of less attending to what he cannot see and feel to be so; and supposing both of the Jewish and Christian revelations something to have been true and supernatural in the first instance, however something more infirm, and merely human, may have since intermingled.' P. 166.

The Calvinistical interpreters of St. Paul's epistles will do well to consider with attention the few observations on the manner and doctrine of this apostle. The author's opinion of justification is summed up in the following words.

'That in the ideas of St. Paul, faith, meaning faith in Christ, or in God, who raised him from the dead, which is here supposed to be the same thing, as it also is in divers other places, is supposed to be under the gospel the only justifying righteousness:

'That it is therefore, secondly, spoken of as an imputed righteousness, or a righteousness so taken, or set down to our account, and reckoned to us in the room and stead of a literal and strict righteousness, with the utmost propriety; in order to denote this constructive nature of it, and to distinguish it from that which is so literally, and in the primary sense.

'From whence it seems to follow, thirdly, that they do greatly err upon this subject, and from the precision and exactness of St. Paul's ideas respecting it, who speak of the imputed righteousness of Christ, and who assert, that it is his righteousness that is imputed to us for justification; whereas, according to St. Paul, it is not that, but our faith in him, which is so reckoned or imputed. Neither again does it seem very proper to say, that in this matter of justification the sinner's faith has the righteousness of Christ for its more immediate object; some of the passages quoted above, though not excluding this, as Rom. iii. 25. yet speaking with full as much emphasis and propriety of some other objects of it, as Rom. x. 9. 1. Pet. i. 21, &c.

'From these same premises it may be clearly seen, fourthly, why this imputed or constructive righteousness only, is so often called by St. Paul, as it is in chap. x. 3. and in chap. iii. 21, &c. God's righteousness, and the righteousness of God; viz. because of his merciful providing and gracious acceptance of it in this view; this very faith itself, as well as the salvation promised to it, being no provision or dictate of mere nature, or of law, but a divine

vouchsafement or gift only, as St. Paul also teaches, in Rom. iii. 24. Eph. ii. 8, &c. Add also, Acts xi. 18.

‘ And from the whole, who discerns not, in the last place, how such a faith in Christ on the sinner’s part, and such gracious acceptance and imputation of it on the part of God, does finally and substantially resolve itself into the same with that repentance and remission of sins which was to be preached in all nations in the name of Jesus; and thus reconcile together not only Jesus and St. Paul, but St. Paul and St. James also; if we will only understand by those works which St. Paul so expressly excludes, works of law, as we certainly ought; and by those which St. James requires and speaks so highly of, works of faith, that is, done in it, and proceeding from it; to which it is certain that St. Paul neither had, nor could have, any objection. To some it has seemed probable that the righteousness of God by faith, in Phil. iii. 9. is to be understood of works of this nature.’ P. 176.

The remaining part of the work relates to the prophecies of Daniel and Isaiah, and the Revelations. The downfall of the pope, and the decay of his church, having occurred in our days in so different a manner from that which was predicted by the generality of commentators on scripture, many persons may be induced to receive without disapprobation the sentiments of our writer. He cannot see the pope in Daniel: Antiochus Epiphanes is the principal character in the drama; and the scene of action is chiefly confined to Judæa and Babylon. On the Revelations we cannot agree farther with Mr. Amner, than in his wish for a regular scheme or plan of well-founded interpretation. We were more pleased with his critique on the prophecies of Isaiah, whose work he divides into two parts. The former part, ending with the thirty-ninth chapter, may, he thinks, not improperly be entitled Hezekiah, or Isaiah’s Hezekiah, as we say Virgil’s *Æneïs*; and to the second, containing the rest of the book, may be given the appellation of the Return; *i. e.* the return of the Jews from the Babylonian captivity. Agreeably to this notion, the phrases applied to our saviour are attributed to Hezekiah; and the supposed evangelical views of the prophet are confined to rapturous exclamations on the return of his countrymen, and the happiness which they for so long a time enjoyed in consequence of their obedience to the true God.

To examine all the opinions of Mr. Amner would take up more time than we can spare: but we can assure those individuals to whom such a task more immediately belongs, that, however they may differ from the writer in various points, they will be pleased with his spirit of research, with his candour in argumentation, and with the proofs which he has given of a mind devoted to the cause of scriptural truth.

The Pursuits of Literature. A Satirical Poem in four Dialogues. With Notes. The Eighth Edition revised. 8vo. 8s. 6d. Boards. Becket. 1798.

IN the opinion of the author of this work, the fullness of the satirical glory never shone *but on SIX POETS*; the three Roman satirists, Boileau, Dryden, and Pope. 'As a disciple of these great masters, and full of that spirit which an unbroken and an honourable intimacy with their works has inspired, I now present myself' (he says) 'a votary at their temple; and in some measure clothed in the robes of their hereditary priesthood, I would also enter and offer my oblation at the high altar of my country.' This writer is willing to consider himself as the seventh great satirist; he would persuade the world that the fullness of the satirical glory, like the divine light which descended from Ishmael to Mohammed, has settled upon him in the consummation of splendour. But will posterity receive the fame of this anonymous satirist upon his own testimony? His own opinions, indeed, are frequently and decisively expressed; he is the censor of literature, the defender of the faith and constitution of his country. A very Quixote in literature, he has attacked windmills and sheep, and congratulated himself upon the overthrow of giants and of armies. His own testimony, however, will not avail him at the tribunal of dispassionate judges; nor can the merit of the work be inferred from its rapid and extensive sale: the author himself will not consider, as the criterion of merit, a circumstance which would be equally in favour of the Monk and of the writings of Thomas Paine. Scandal and calumny will always be greedily received; the Jockey Club was generally read because it was personal and abusive; and the anonymous satirist may congratulate himself upon a similar notoriety.

It may be observed, to the disgrace of the present satirist, that he has always exaggerated the faults or merits which he has censured or commended, and has contemplated every thing through the false medium of prejudice or friendship. We transcribe what he has said of the romance of the Monk.

'There is one publication of the time too peculiar, and too important to be passed over in a general reprehension. There is nothing with which it may be compared. A legislator in our own parliament, a member of the house of commons of Great Britain, an elected guardian and defender of the laws, the religion, and the good manners of the country, has neither scrupled nor blushed to depict, and to publish to the world, the arts of lewd and systematick seduction, and to thrust upon the nation the most open and unqualified blasphemy against the very code and volume of our religion. And all this, with his name, style, and title, prefixed to the novel

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or romance called "The Monk." And one of our publick theatres has allured the publick attention still more to this novel, by a scenick representation of an episode in it. "O proceres, censure opus est, an haruspice, nobis?" I consider this as a new species of legislative or state-parricide.' p. 239.

' We can feel that it is an object of moral and of national reprehension, when a senator openly and daringly violates his first duty to his country. There are wounds, and obstructions, and diseases in the political, as well as in the natural, body, for which the removal of the part affected is alone efficacious. At an hour like this, are we to stand in consultation on the remedy, when not only the disease is ascertained, but the very stage of the disease, and its specifick symptoms? Are we to spare the sharpest instruments of authority and of censure, when public establishments are gangrened in the life-organs?

' I fear, if our legislators are wholly regardless of such writings, and of such principles, among their own members, it may be said to them, as the Roman satirist said to the patricians of the empire, for offences slight indeed, when compared to these:

"At vos, Trojugenæ, vobis ignoscitis, et quæ
Turpia cerdoni, Volesos Brutosque decebunt.

There is surely something peculiar in these days; something wholly unknown to our ancestors. But men, however dignified in their political station, or gifted with genius, and fortune, and accomplishments, may at least be made ashamed, or alarmed, or convicted before the tribunal of publick opinion. Before that tribunal, and to the law of reputation, and every binding and powerful sanction by which that law is enforced, is Mr. Lewis this day called to answer.' p. 242.

It certainly is not our intention to justify the licentiousness of the Monk, or the ridiculous criticism upon the scriptures, which the satirist so vehemently points out as blasphemous, and deserving of public punishment. On the first publication of the book, we severely condemned the indecent and impious parts of it*. But surely it is most exaggerated censure to compare Mr. Lewis with Cleland for the obscenity, and with Woolston and Peter Annet for the blasphemy, of his writings. Let the whole tendency of the novel be considered. What are the consequences of Ambrosio's indulged passions? guilt, ignominy, death, and everlasting perdition. Perhaps, if the indecencies of the Monk had not been so industriously pointed out, many or even most of its readers would not have noticed or remembered them. But the tenor of the whole, says the satirist, is reprehensible: how? is it reprehensible to enforce by story the precept, 'show mercy to others that you may deserve mercy yourself?' or will this censor object to the old lesson,

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'let no man be confident in his own virtue?' It is ungenerous and unjust, after accusing Mr. Lewis so bitterly for the improper passages to which we have alluded, not to mention that in the last edition of his book they have been omitted. The satirist is not always so severe upon obscenity; he can speak of an obscene poem as '*the light and vigorous sally of a very young man, forgiven as such and forgotten*;' but he can find no palliating epithet for the Monk. As for the youth of its author, the plea for which the *Geranium* is forgiven and forgotten, he asks, 'What is it to the kingdom at large, or what is it to all those whose office it is to maintain truth, and to instruct the rising abilities and hope of England, that the author of the Monk is a *very young man*?' and, if there be any thing *vigorous* or poetical in the novel, 'it is,' he says, 'so much the worse; it is the more alluring on that account.'

The satirist fiercely attacks the following passage in Mr. Godwin's *Enquirer*, respecting the children of peasants.

'At the age of fourteen the very traces of understanding are obliterated. They are enlisted at the crimping house of oppression. They are brutified by immoderate and unremitting labour. Their hearts are hardened, and their spirits broken by all that they see, all that they feel, and all that they look forward to. This is one of the most interesting points of view, in which we consider the present order of society! It is the great slaughter-house of genius, and of mind. It is the unrelenting murderer of hope and gaiety, of the love of reflection, and of the love of life.'

'This it is (he adds), I suppose, as this atrocious but foolish writer would call it, to promote patience and tranquillity among mankind!' He is, however, unfortunate in the selection of a passage for his censure. Does he deny that a great proportion of the lower classes of society are '*brutified* by immoderate and unremitting labour? that their hearts are *hardened* and their spirits *broken* by all that they see, all that they feel, and all that they look forward to?' Does he object to the passage as tending to excite discontent? to whom then does he suppose that the book is addressed? will it be read by those who 'are enlisted at the crimping-house of oppression,' or by the manufacturers who are herded together by fifties and by hundreds, and destroyed by the slow poison of confinement and unwholesome occupations? When the grievances of the poor are exposed in works like this, they are intimated to those who have the power of alleviating them. Such a disclosure may stimulate the rich to beneficence; but surely octavo volumes are not calculated to excite the poor to discontent.

No author ever laid himself more open to ridicule than Mr. Godwin. His enemies could not have dictated passages more agreeable to them than he has written. We are not the ad-

vocates for his system ; but we would deal fairly even with the system which we disapprove. To ridicule is not always to confute ; and any system may be rendered ridiculous by exhibiting only parts of it.

‘ The first trait of the work is, a certain cold-blooded indifference to all the mild, pious, and honourable feelings of our common nature, like all the philosophers of the new sect. The next thing observable, is a most affectionate concern and regard for the welfare of mankind, who are to exist some centuries hence, when the endless perfectibility of the human species (for such is their jargon) shall receive its completion upon earth ; when the disciples of Dr. Darwin have learned to manage the winds and direct their currents at pleasure, and the descendants of abbé Sieyes have calmed the waves of a stormy people with the essential oil of democracy. Another trait is that all political justice is essentially founded upon injustice ; if plunder, robbery, and spoliation of all property in the outset may be termed injustice ; though to be sure the latter end of his commonwealth rather forgets the beginning. But I must say, he is not without some kind of apprehension, that the population of states may be too great, under the blessings of an equal diffusion of property in the proposed government, for which he provides a remedy : though, for my own part, I think such a government, like Saturn of old, will be reduced to the necessity of eating up it’s children. Again : another discovery seems to be, that as hitherto we have had recourse to the agency and interference of the deity, and his unalterable laws, to account even for the fall of a stone to the ground, the germination of a blade of grass, or the propagation of the meanest insect ; we are now to discard the superintendence of God in human and terrestrial affairs, and to believe in no providence but our own, and to re-make ourselves and our faculties. He seems to realize a modern fiction I once read, which supposes an assembly of certain philosophers before the deity, when some of them are said to whisper in his ear, “ Between friends, we do not believe that you exist at all.” Further : as to suppose a divine sanction without a divinity would be absurd, therefore, every institution such as marriage, which in all civilized nations has been hallowed for the great end for which it was ordained, is to be vilified, ridiculed, argued away, and abolished. The tender sex, deprived of the support, comfort, and protection of their natural guardian, is to be delivered over to fancied freedom and wild independance, but in reality to misery and destitution beyond all calculation. Then by way of corollary, a few vulgar virtues and once honourable affections, as piety to parents, and love to children, as such, are to be erased from the breast. Gratitude for kindness, and tears for the unfortunate, are but weakness : there is nothing soothing in compassion, and friendship has no consolation. It would seem, that a well of water, an apple tree, or any thing productive, is more va-

luable than man to man, abstracted from the mere use which one man can derive from another. "These are thy gods, O Israel, and this is the worship to which you are called!" P. 210.

'Take Mr. Godwin as a natural philosopher, and from his doctrines let the reader consider the state of his understanding. Let him also consider, how such a man is qualified not merely to reform, but first to overthrow and then to rebuild, the whole system of government, morality, and religion in such a kingdom as Great Britain. What opinion can we entertain of a man who seriously thinks that, at some future period, the necessity of sleep in an animal body may be superseded:—that men die merely by their own fault and mismanagement, but, that the immortality of the organized human body, as it is now formed, might be attained by proper attention and care:—or who thinks "that, hereafter it is by no means clear, that the most extensive operations may not be within the reach of one man, or to make use of a familiar instance, that a plough may not be turned into a field, and perform it's office without the need of superintendence!" and then adds, "It was in this sense that the celebrated Franklin conjectured, that mind would one day become omnipotent over matter!" P. 214.

What would the satirist say to the infidel who should in this manner attack the gospel system, and ridicule Christianity, because its divine teacher said that he was come 'to set a man at variance against his father;' because, when 'one said unto him, behold, thy mother and thy brethren stand without, desiring to speak with thee, he answered and said, who is my mother? and who are my brethren? and stretched forth his hand towards his disciples and said, behold my mother and my brethren!' Would he not justly accuse the man either of grossly misunderstanding or wilfully misrepresenting the Christian system, if he inferred, from these and similar passages, that the extinction of natural affection formed a part of it? Let not this writer accuse us of classing Christianity and the speculations of Mr. Godwin together. We are as firm in our belief of that divine religion as the satirist can be, and are at all times ready and able to defend it. We are ready and able also to attack the errors of the new philosophy; but we would oppose them in the spirit of meekness and truth.

In his censure of the cruel experiments which disgrace natural philosophy, and almost human nature, we cordially agree with the satirist. With pleasure, and in the hope of enforcing sentiments becoming a man and a Christian, we say with him, 'when an experiment, for any purpose useful to millions of our fellow-creatures, has been once made upon an animal, it should be *finally* recorded by men of science and veracity, as authentic and satisfactory, *not to be repeated.*' After the fact

is established, all experiments are useless to society, and injurious to the individual, who hardens his own heart by 'the mere cruel sport of curiosity.' For tolerating such experiments the utmost severity of satire may justly fall on the royal society: but why should a person select for ridicule the accounts of the evaporation of a diamond, and of the trout with the gizzard-like stomach?

The satirist, in embellishing his work with the expressions of other men, has not always acknowledged his obligations; in censuring the royal society, he says, if they will not consider well the character of the candidates offered for their choice as associates, the busts of Newton and of Boyle should be veiled; but he has not quoted the Frenchman who demanded 'that a veil should be thrown over the bust of Brutus.'

The poem itself requires no criticism; a small number of good lines, like those upon the Botanic Garden, will not redeem it from the neglect which its desultory dullness must ensure. By the present generation the notes will be read with interest; and perhaps they will not be forgotten when this generation has passed away. Posterity may search in them for the scandal of these times, as we 'rake in the dunghills' of Procopius and Athenæus. That the author will ever be known, is not probable. Consummately vain as he is, he would not, we think, purchase notoriety so dearly. The reputation of a satirist is not desirable. A man may commence a satire from the best motives; but the execution of it must deteriorate his mind.

The View of Hindoostan. By Thomas Pennant, Esq.

(Concluded from page 129.)

THIS ingenious and intelligent writer, having ranged along the coast of Malabar, doubled Cape Comorin, and examined with attention the island of Ceylon, now pursues, with the same care, the eastern coast, and follows the various rivers to their sources. In the second volume of his *View*, we find the same spirit, good sense, and information, which marked the former, mingled occasionally with a few prejudices, or opinions which seem tinged with a party hue. These are not, however, offensively obtruded, nor do they frequently occur.

On the coast of Tinevelly, to the north of East Cape, is the spot frequented by the fishers for pearls; and Mr. Pennant has given a good abstract of their method of proceeding. This fishery has existed from the earliest records of history to the

present time; and it is now carried on by the Dutch. The pearl oyster is found adhering to the banks of coral; but, even in colder regions, different species of mytilus may be enabled to produce the pearl. This secret was discovered by Linnæus, who refused to reveal it, as it would lessen the value of these beautiful ornaments. From some inquiries among the more confidential disciples of the northern naturalist, we were induced to believe, that the infliction of a wound on the external shell would occasion the excrescence internally; for, in every instance, it is a morbid production.

The river Vaygaroo leads our author to Dindigul and Madura, of which he recounts the various fortunes. The Colleries and Polygars are aborigines of India, and are a savage race, cruel, enthusiastic, and intolerant, with little more than the forms of men. These are found on the present coast. To the history of the kingdom of Tanjore we are led by the Delta of the Caverry; but it offers nothing new. After a survey of Negapatam, Tranquebar, the isle of Seringham, Trichinopoly, and Coimbatore, we are introduced into the Carnatic,—

* a tract of country, which within this century has been peculiarly interesting to the British nation, by the bloody contests between us and the French, for the superiority. This country formed originally part of the great soubahship or vice-royalty of the Decan. This was made independent of the Mogul by the famous Nizam el Muluc: this vast kingdom was, after his death, greatly lessened by the conquests of the Mahrattas, by our seizing the northern Circars, and by our bestowing on the nabob of Arcot the country in question. Its present boundaries are the Coleroon to the south, and the Gendegama to the north, an extent, washed by the sea, of three hundred miles. I may here point out to the reader the vastness of the antient extent of the Carnatic, of which, and its appendages, our ally, Mahomed Ally, is the nabob. It is now reduced, but once comprehended the whole country from the river Kishna to cape Comorin. At present it reaches as far as the extremity of Tinevelly, an extent of five hundred and seventy miles, reckoning from the south of the Guntoor Circar. Its breadth is inconsiderable, from seventy-five to a hundred and twenty miles. The whole coast is destitute of harbours; the shipping are obliged to lie at anchor in the open roads, usually in eight fathoms water, and at about a mile and a half distant from land, and larger ships at two miles distance, in ten or twelve fathoms: at twenty miles distance, the water deepens to fifty fathoms, and a little farther to sixty or seventy. Midway between Tranquebar and the Nicobar isles, there is no ground to be found with seven hundred fathoms of line. I may include the whole coast of Coromandel under this description, an extent of not less than four hundred miles, reaching from Caly-

mere point to the mouth of the Kistnah. On all the shore breaks a most dangerous and high surf, which appals the stoutest seaman; no European boat can attempt to land. The cantamarans or boats are of a particular construction, being formed without ribs or keel, with flat bottoms, and having their planks sewed together; iron being totally excluded throughout the whole fabric. By this construction they are rendered flexible enough to elude the effects of the violent shocks which they receive, by the dashing of the waves or surf on the beach, and which either oversets or breaks to pieces a boat of European construction.' Vol. ii. p. 25.

The different sieges of Pondicherry are accurately mentioned; and the natural history of the neighbourhood follows. This part of the country (says Mr. Pennant) abounds with vultures.

'All this genus are equally remarkable for their voracity, and their sagacity of nostril. After the attack of the nabob's camp before the battle of Plassey, in which was made a vast slaughter of men, elephants, and horses; vultures, jackals, and pariahs, or village curs, were seen tearing the same corps or carcasses, and the first were often so gorged, that they could not be forced from the spot. Vultures were usually very rare in the adjacent country, but at that time the plain was covered with them. The air was suddenly seen filled with multitudes, flying with their usual sluggish wing from every quarter, and from most distant parts, to partake of the carnage. It is wonderful how such multitudes could be collected in so small a space. It has been an ancient opinion, that, by a prophetic instinct, they have presages of a battle, and will seek the spot of future slaughter three days before the event.' Vol. ii. p. 36.

The account of the Paliar gives occasion for military narration; and the battles of Vandewash, Conjeveram, Arnee, &c. are sketched with spirit. Near that river stands the extensive city of Arcot: Sadras and the seven pagodas are also not far distant from its banks. These pagodas are

'a most wonderful assemblage of temples, and other places of Hindoo worship, second only in antiquity to those of Elephanta and at Ellora, which are subterraneous, cut out of the solid rock. These are elevated high above the surface, excavated out of solid rocks rising to different heights, and by the wondrous skill of the antient artists hollowed into various forms; the natural roof is often self-supported, sometimes it is as if held up by pillars left in fit places, possibly more for ornament than necessity, cut out of the same rock. Where the sizes of the rocks will admit, there are instances of two pagodas, one cut out of the same rock above the other, with the communication of a staircase formed out of the live stone. Staircases frequently occur, as if once leading to edifices now destroyed. Excavations supposed to have been designed for Choultries, or the

same charitable purposes as the Mahometan caravanseras, are not infrequent.' Vol. ii. p. 51.

Madras and its environs are noticed at sufficient length. The exploits of the marquis Cornwallis are enumerated; and a sketch of the Mysoore country is given in this part of the second volume.

'The Mysoore country is an immense inclined plain, with an undulated surface, which, with little assistance by dams, form in the hollows, tanks, or receptacles for water, which is preserved for the cattle, or for the paddy or rice fields, through which it is conducted by small gutters; but the principal grain of the country is *rag-gee*, which requires no more moisture than the falling of the monsoons. This plain is dotted with numerous hills, which rise suddenly from the surface; they are of different forms, and often clothed with the perpetual verdure of mango and other beautiful trees. Numbers are fortified on their summits with a strong fort, once the residence of the lesser Hindoo rajahs before they were swallowed up by the various Mahometan conquests. Many received by the conquerors additional fortifications, which rendered them impregnable to a native enemy: such are Saven-droog, Outre-droog, and variety of others, which proved easy conquests to the British commander. The celebrated Aornos Petra was a fortress of this nature. With what vaunting circumstances does the historian of the Macedonian hero describe this single conquest! How lightly does the modest record of the victor over the Mysoorean kingdom touch on more numerous acquisitions of the same kind, possibly of equal, perhaps of superior strength. All these forts have their proper names, and most of them with the addition of droog, i. e. a hill fort. Views of numbers are given by major Allan and Mr. Home, which convey a full idea of the partial inaccessibility bestowed on them by nature, and the additional difficulties created by art.' Vol. ii. p. 73.

The bound hedge, a mode of fortification little known, is thus described—

'The bound hedge, the frequent concomitant of the fortresses of Hindoostan, appears here [*near Seringapatam*] in great strength. It is the practice in the Polygar system of defence, and copied by the civilized natives from the wild warriors of the forests. Of the latter, the fort of Calicoil and that of Palam Courchy are strong examples. This begins opposite to each end of the island, and reaches the edge of the river. It extends northward, opposite to the western end of the island, but contracts in breadth as it passes to the eastern end. The bound hedge is often defended at certain intervals or openings by small redoubts, to interrupt the pioneers employed in cutting a breach through it: Such were those in the bound hedge at Pondicherry, which so long impeded the taking of the place, in 1760, by colonel Coote.

These local defences are formed of every thorny tree or caustic plant of the climate. Palmira trees, or the *borassus flabelliformis*, are the primary. These are planted to the depth of from thirty to fifty feet. In the interstices of the trees, which are very closely placed, are confusedly sown or set, the following plants. *Pandanus odoratissimus*, or wild pine; *cactus tuna*, *euphorbia tiraculla*, or milky hedge. The juice of this is so caustic as to scald not only the human skin, but the hide of a horse, on whom it may fall in forcing through this infernal hedge. Several other sorts of *euphorbia*: the *aloe littoralis* of Koenig, *convolvulus maricatus*, and other *convolvuli*. The *mimosa cinerea*, *horrida*, *instia*, and another, as yet undescribed, armed with most dreadful thorns. The *guiliadina* unite their powers; intermixed is the *guiliadina bonducella*, and another not laid before the public, to which Koenig gives the epithet *lacinians*, which it fully merits. The *calamus rotang*, or *rattan*, and the *arundo bambo*, often assist in the impenetrability. The last is remarked to be admirable for the purpose, since nothing equals it in resisting the edge of the ax, or the subtle fury of fire. To conclude, plants innumerable, of unknown species, the seeds of which, arrested by the antient hedge, grow and intermix, preserving it in order and verdure everlasting. Vol. ii. p. 85.

On the west of Madras, are chains of hills thrown up by the convulsions of the globe, with a regularity resembling the efforts of human art. It is remarkable, that this tract, though now barren, was once fertile. Vast trees remain in a petrified state. Among the animals of this country, we have reason to think there are some more nearly approaching the human form than monkeys. A description of a pair of these, in many respects resembling human beings, is extracted from Mr. Grove's entertaining voyage. These, if the account be accurate, were probably the pygmies of the ancients. For the rest of the natural history of this part of India, we must refer to the volume.

The Penner and Krishna, with their tributary streams, lead our author into an account of the towns and fortresses which border on them. The descriptions of the kingdom of Golconda and its gems are interesting, but not novel.

In the survey of the Circars, it is remarked, that

'All the people of this part of India are Hindoos, and retain the old religion with all its superstition: This makes the pagodas here much more numerous than in any other part of the peninsula; their form too is different, being chiefly buildings of a cylindrical or round tower shape, with their tops either pointed or truncated at the summit, and ornamented with something eccentric, but frequently with a round ball, stuck on a spike: this ball seems intended to represent the sun, an emblem of the deity of the place; sometimes two or more are united, sometimes they are single.

' The Polygars of this country value themselves highly on their antient descent, and esteem themselves the first of Hindoos next to the Brahmins, and equal to the Raipoots. The district of each chieftain is generally about twenty square miles; they have many little towns and forts, besides; they have here one fort in the most difficult part of the country, intended as the last retreat of the Polygar and all his blood. It is seated in the center of the mountainous forest, and accessible only by a narrow winding path, of the width capable of receiving only three men abreast, and five miles in length, and every turning guarded by works.' Vol. ii. p. 123.

The story of the unfortunate Polygar Rangarao, with the horrid *joar* (the massacre of wives and children, to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy), is well told; and its horrors are relieved by the unexpected preservation of the son of Rangarao against his father's will, and the friendly conduct of M. Buffy.

The great Chilka lake, formed by an overwhelming sea, bounds the Circars on the north; and the kingdom of Orissa follows, inhabited by an effeminate race. The trees of the Circars are described from Dr. Roxburgh's work, which we have already particularly noticed. The pagodas of Jagrenaut, supposed, though without reason, to be the Indian Apollo, are next described.

Cape Palmeras projects into the sea in lat. $20^{\circ} 43'$, and beyond it is a large semilunar bay ending in the entrance to the Hoogly river. This brings Mr. Pennant to Gangetic Hindoostan; an object of such extent and magnitude, that we cannot follow him minutely.

The Delta of the Ganges includes numerous islands full of wood, infested with beasts of the most ferocious kind, which prey on incautious navigators, or on those who retire to the groves for a temporary relaxation.

The course of the river is traced from its source in the kingdom of Thibet; and the Gangetic towns and forts are successively described. Dehli and its eventful story, the Rohilla war, and the famous march of the Bengal brigade, across the continent, under colonel Leslie and general Goddard, are included in this part of the 'View.' In the history of Cheyt Sing, Mr. Pennant considers Mr. Hastings as fully cleared by the defence of Mr. Broome.

A long detail is given of the zoology of this and other parts of India; and we need not add, that the statements of our naturalist are in general accurate. He was greatly assisted in this task by the drawings and the information of persons now in England, who were formerly in India.

The mention of some particulars respecting the flourishing settlement of Calcutta may gratify our readers.

'The first fort was built of brick, and named Fort William, in honor of king William. Numbers of people, attracted by the commercial advantages, flocked to this new settlement. The goods of the provinces on the Ganges were brought down to feed the luxuries of the west, and those of Europe conveyed across the vast ocean to supply the new-acquired wants of the east. I cannot trace the progressive increase; let it suffice to say, that the present number of inhabitants amounts to five hundred thousand. The English quarter is built in the most elegant and superb manner in the European style; and the buildings have more the appearance of palaces than the residence of private persons. Some that are built quite on speculation will take a rent of a thousand roupes, or £.125 English a year. A fine set of prints, lately engraven by Mr. Thomas Daniell, shew the most splendid parts of the city, and many of the manners of the inhabitants.' Vol. ii. p. 311.

'The citadel was built immediately after the battle of Plassey, on a scale so large as to render it useless. To garrison it is required an army sufficient to take the field, and face an enemy without the protection of fortifications. The river has size and depth enough to bring up to the very city ships of any burden which trade to India.' Vol. ii. p. 312.

'The bulk of the inhabitants of Calcutta are Indians from all parts; their houses are equally mean with those of the natives in the other cities of India, and built in the same style, but such an *emporium* occasions it to be the resort of people of every nation; here are found abundance of the mongrel Portuguese. I believe they originated from some banditti of that nation, who for a long time infested the Sunderbund, or rather its canals and neighboring sea, with their piracies, they mixed with the natives, and increased to a great degree.' Vol. ii. p. 313.

A sketch of the kingdom of Napaul follows the account of the river Dacca, which in some measure connects the Ganges and Burrampooter.

'This kingdom is separated from Hindoostan by a range of hills. The approach or lower part is healthy, but the hilly, called Terriane, is infested from the middle of March to the middle of November with a putrid fever, which kills in a few days. From the interior chain of hills is a fine view of the vast plains of Napaul, two hundred miles in circumference, surrounded by mountains like an amphitheatre, and covered with populous towns and villages, inaccessible except over the mountains. Its capital, Cat-manda, has eighteen thousand houses; the next town in size twenty-four thousand; the third twelve thousand families. Every town is built with brick, the houses three or four stories high, and disposed with great regularity, and are well paved and also excel-

lently furnished with water. It is fertilized by the Cosa, which rises in lat. $30^{\circ} 20'$, passes through the Emodus chain, and through the whole plain of Napaul, and finally falls into the Ganges, a little to the east of Boglepour. The religion of the country is said to have been brought from Thibet; part of the people adopt that of the Hindoos. The temples are magnificent.

'The government is monarchical; the late Gaenprejas had an army of fifty thousand men, but that was unable to prevent his being dethroned by the king of Gorcha, a neighbouring prince, assisted by the treachery of the subjects of the innocent monarch. The king of Gorcha was a complete barbarian. The cruelties he practised on the loyal subjects of Napaul to shake their fealty, are too shocking for me to relate. Gaenprejas was in his city when it was stormed by the savage monarch, when he in despair ran towards his enemy, and received his death by the shot of an arrow.'
Vo. ii. p. 343.

The rude and mountainous country of Bootan is concisely described. Tassifudon is the capital of that territory.

'Between this city and Paradrong is the great Emodal chain, capd eternally with snow, the same which overtops the other snow-capt chains, and shews itself to the distant inhabitants of Bengal. This range is also the boundary between Bootan and the Lama's country, or Great Thibet. From this limit, to the great river Burrampooter, is in many places a hundred and fifty miles in extent. The river Teesta rises not far from the former, and hastens south through Bootan and Bengal, till it is lost near Dacca in Bengal.

'This country rises into mountains of prodigious height. The summits eternally covered with snow, the sides with forests of stately trees of various kinds; some, such as pines, aspens, birch, cypress and yew, holly and elder; ash is uncommon, oaks have not yet been discovered in Bootan; firs, and others known in Europe, others again peculiar to the country and climate. Many of these forests are useless to mankind, being placed amidst rocks inaccessible. At their base, the vallies and sides are cultivated, and are productive of wheat, barley, and even rice. In the depth of the vallies rush numbers of furious torrents, which, increasing in their course, and at length gaining the plains, are lost in the rivers of Bengal.' Vol. ii. p. 351.

The course of the Burrampooter is followed, like that of the Ganges; and its claims to superior fame, from the extent of its course and other circumstances, are evinced. The work terminates with a survey of the district of Chittigong.

We must not conclude without expressing our obligations to Mr. Pennant for a work so interesting, for inquiries so numerous and extensive, and a description so clear, compact, and comprehensive. The few blemishes which may be observed, do not greatly detract from the merit of the performance.

The *humana incuria* and venial prejudices must occasionally influence every author. To yield to them only in a few instances is no common praise.

The second volume is illustrated by fourteen plates. These are views of the country, representations of different characters, &c. They are, in general, entitled to our commendation.

Lovers' Vows, or, the Child of Love. A Play, in Five Acts. Translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue; with a brief Biography of the Author. By Stephen Porter. 8vo. 2s. Parsons. 1798.

The Natural Son, &c. Translated from the German, by Anne Plumptre, (Author of the Rector's Son, Antoinette, &c.) who has prefixed a Preface, explaining the Alterations in the Representation; and has also annexed a Life of Kotzebue. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1798.

Lovers' Vows. A Play, in Five Acts. Performing at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. From the German of Kotzebue. By Mrs. Inchbald. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1798.

IT is an extraordinary proof of the celebrity of Kotzebue, that two translations of this play should have appeared together, and a third have become a favourite on the English stage. The story is very interesting. The author has, as usual, attacked a prejudice; and, in this instance, no moralist can object to his aim. The baron Von Wildenhain, after seducing Wilhelmina, a country girl, has married a lady of rank. He has not wilfully neglected the former object of his affection, or her child; but, from his removal and other circumstances, they have eluded his inquiries; so that, when after the death of his wife he returns to his native place, Wilhelmina is in extreme poverty, and her son a soldier. The latter begs money of the baron for his sick mother, and, not receiving enough, attempts to rob him. He is secured, and during his confinement learns that it was his father against whom he had raised his sword. The baron, or (as he is called in Mr. Porter's translation) the colonel, is represented as a man of a good heart. The story of the young man affects him; and he comes to release him. This scene ensues—

‘Colonel. Go your way, with the blessing of Heaven, my friend:—you are free. I have enquired after your mother, who is recovering.—For her sake, I forgive you; but do not attempt the same thing again.—Robbing is a bad trade.—Take this louis-d’or, and try to live honestly. If you behave well, my door and my purse

shall always be open to you. Now, God's blessing be with you, young man!

' *Frederick. (taking the louis-d'or)* You are very generous, my lord:—you give me money, and are not sparing of good advice. But I desire your help in a matter of much greater moment. You are a powerful man;—aid me, then, to bring to justice an unnatural father.

' *Colonel.* How?—Who is your father?

' *Frederick. (sarcastically)* O, he is a great baron, of a large estate—esteemed at court, respected in the capital, and honoured in the country. Above all, he is benevolent, honest, and brave.

' *Colonel.* And yet suffers his son to be in want?

' *Frederick.* And yet suffers his son to be in want.

' *Colonel.* Perhaps, my friend, you have deserved it:—you may have been wild, lascivious—a spendthrift, a gamester? Such things are;—and your father may think it prudent to let you march behind the drum for a few years.—The sound of the drum is an excellent specific in such cases; and if this be your case, I am far from disapproving your father's conduct.

' *Frederick.* So far from that, my lord, he does not so much as know me. He abandoned me, even in my mother's womb.

' *Colonel.* What?

' *Frederick.* The tears of my mother were all the wealth he left me.—He has never enquired after me—never taken the least trouble about me.

' *Colonel.* Monster!

' *Frederick.* I am a child of love. My poor, seduced mother, has reared me in the midst of grief and sorrow.—She has, however, by labouring hard, afforded as much as was necessary to give me some education; and I, therefore, consider myself worthy the regard of a father, who would be deserving of such a son. But, alas! this is no concern of his; and his conscience suffers him to continue regardless of the fate of his unhappy child.

' *Colonel.* Regardless?—That cannot be.

' *Frederick.* When I was grown up, I had no other means of relieving my mother, than going into the army, bastards being precluded every other profession.

' *Colonel.* Unfortunate young man!

' *Frederick.* Nature has made sorrow and grief the companions of age, and bestowed cheerfulness on youth, to prepare it for the sufferings of declining years. I never knew cheerfulness.—My enjoyments have been the hard fare of a common soldier, and the severity of the serjeant into the bargain. But what is this to my father? His table is covered with plenty; and he laughs at the upbraidings of conscience.

' *Colonel. (aside)* His story touches me.

' *Frederick.* After an absence of five years, I return this very day to my native country, full of sweet filial dreams, and find my

poor mother almost starved to death, with not so much as a bundle of straw to repose her head on, or a roof to shelter her from the changes of the seasons. — Not one charitable being near her, to close her eyes, nor even a spot of earth to die on in peace. — But what is all this to my father? — He has an elegant country-house amply furnished with all the luxuries of life, and when he dies, the priest will exalt his christianlike virtues in a funeral sermon.

* *Colonel.* Tell me, young man, what is the name of your father,

* *Frederick.* That he has by falshood deceived an innocent and unwary girl — that he has given existence to an unhappy being, who curses him — that he has almost made his own son a parricide; — all these horrible crimes are trifles to be atoned for before the supreme judge of man, by a piece of gold — like that! (*throwing the louis d'or at the feet of the colonel.*)

* *Colonel.* Who is thy father?

* *Frederick.* You!

* *Colonel.* (*covers his face with his hands, and stands speechless.*)

* *Frederick.* (*in great emotion*) In this house, perhaps in this very room, you betrayed the innocence of my mother, and to render her misery complete, begot a son. Now, sir, I am again your prisoner — I will be your prisoner — I am a robber — I accuse myself — Let justice have its way. You shall attend my execution — shall see how vainly the ministers of religion will endeavour to give me comfort — shall hear how my last despairing words will curse you. Then come, and stand near me, when my head is severed off, that my blood, nay, thine own blood, may besprinkle your garments. —

* *Colonel.* Silence, I entreat you!

* *Frederick.* And on your return from the scaffold, you shall find my mother breathing her last.

* *Colonel.* Leave off, monster!

* *Enter the Parson hastily.*

* *Parson.* What is the matter here? I hear a violent altercation. Young man, what have you dared to do?

* *Frederick.* I have dared for a moment to do your business, sir. I have shook the sinner! Look there, and see how a moment's lust is punished after twenty-one years. I am a robber, sir, and a murderer; but what I now feel is the bliss of heaven compared with what that guilty man endures. Now let justice have its course, that my blood may witness against him. [*Exit Frederick.*]
P. 80.

The piece concludes with the determination of the baron, notwithstanding the pride and prejudice of rank, to marry Wilhelmina; a reparation to which he is influenced by the conduct of his son, and the arguments of the clergyman of the village. To this minister, who is an amiable and virtuous young man, he even condescends to give his daughter,

rather than to a man of fashion, a coxcomb, who pays his addressee to her. It may perhaps be justly affirmed, that the character of the daughter is not natural. There is somewhat of the simple forwardness of Athanasia * in her; but there is not the same excuse for it. This objection, however, detracts little from the merit of the play, which, we think, must interest every reader of sensibility.

Miss Plumptre's translation of the same piece seems to be, in general, less stiff and constrained than that of Mr. Porter; and it is perhaps less faithful; but this point we cannot determine, as we have not seen the original. A part of the scene in which the father and son have an interview, we will give from her publication.

* *Baron. (Shuddering.)* Young man, what is thy father's name?

* *Fred.* That he abused the weakness of a guiltless maiden,—deceived her through false oaths—that he gave existence to an unhappy wretch, who must curse him for the fatal gift—that he has driven his only son almost to parricide—Oh these are trifles—and when the day of reckoning comes, may all be paid for by a piece of gold?—*(throws the louis-d'or at the baron's feet.)*

* *Baron. (half distracted.)* Young man, tell me thy father's name!

* *Fred.* Baron Wildenhain! *(The baron strikes his forehead with both hands, and remains fixed to the spot where he stands. Frederick proceeds with violent emotion.)* Yes, in this house, in this very room, perhaps, was my mother beguiled of her virtue, and I was begotten for the sword of the executioner. And now, my lord, I am not free—I am your prisoner—I will not be free.—I am a highway-robber—loudly do I accuse myself as such—you shall consign me over to the hand of justice—shall conduct me to the place of execution—you shall hear how the priest seeks in vain to calm my mind—shall hear how in despair I curse my father—shall stand by me as the head falls from the trunk—and my blood—your own blood—shall sprinkle your garments.

* *Baron.* Oh hold! hold!

* *Fred.* And when you turn from this scene, and descend from the scaffold—there at its foot shall you find my mother, even at the moment that she draws her last breath—sighs out her soul in anguish!

* *Baron.* Inhuman! hold! *(The pastor rushes in hastily.)*

* *Pastor.* Heavens what is the matter?—I hear impassioned words!—what has been passing here?—young man, I hope you've not attempted—

* *Fred.* Yes, sir, I have attempted to take your office from your hands—I have made a sinner tremble! *(pointing to the baron.)* See there—thus after a lapse of one and twenty years, the injuries

* In Kotzebue's Count Benyowsky.

arising from inordinate passions, are revenged.—I am a murderer—I am a highway-robber—but what I feel in this moment is transport, is bliss, compared with the thorns which lacerate his breast. I go to surrender myself up to justice, and then at the throne of heaven will I appear a bloody witness against this man. [*Exit.* P. 59.

That Mrs. Inchbald has well adapted this play of Kotzebue to the taste of an English public, is evinced by its success in the representation. The character of Amelia, in our opinion, is in some degree improved; but not so much as Mrs. Inchbald seems to imagine. She says,

‘The part of Amelia has been a very particular object of my solicitude and alteration: the same situations which the author gave her remain, but almost all the dialogue of the character I have changed: the forward and unequivocal manner in which she announces her affection to her lover, in the original, would have been revolting to an English audience: the passion of love, represented on the stage, is certain to be insipid or disgusting, unless it creates smiles or tears: Amelia’s love, by Kotzebue, is indelicately blunt, and yet void of mirth or sadness: I have endeavoured to attach the attention and sympathy of the audience by whimsical insinuations, rather than coarse abruptness—the same woman, I conceive, whom the author drew, with the self-same sentiments, but with manners adapted to the English rather than the German taste; and if the favour in which this character is held by the audience, together with every sentence and incident which I have presumed to introduce in the play, may be offered as the criterion of my skill, I am sufficiently rewarded for the task I have performed.’ P. iii.

In the altered play, the last scene is thus exhibited:

‘*Baron.* Amelia, you have a brother.

‘*Amelia.* I have just heard so, my lord; and rejoice to find the news confirmed by you.

‘*Baron.* I know, my dear Amelia, I can repay you for the loss of count Cassel; but what return can I make to you for the loss of half your fortune?

‘*Amelia.* My brother’s love will be ample recompense.

‘*Baron.* I will reward you better. Mr. Anhalt, the battle I have just fought, I owe to myself: the victory I gained, I owe to you. A man of your principles, at once a teacher and an example of virtue, exalts his rank in life to a level with the noblest family—and I shall be proud to receive you as my son.

‘*Anhalt* [*falling on his knees, and taking the baron’s hand*]. My lord, you overwhelm me with confusion, as well as with joy.

‘*Baron.* My obligations to you are infinite—Amelia shall pay the debt. [*Gives her to him.*]

‘*Amelia.* Oh, my dear father! [*embracing the baron*] what

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blessings have you bestowed on me in one day. [*to Anhalt.*] I will be your scholar still, and use more diligence than ever to please my master.

‘*Anhalt.* His present happiness admits of no addition.

‘*Baron.* Nor does mine—And yet there is another task to perform that will require more fortitude, more courage, than this has done! A trial that!—[*bursts into tears*]—I cannot prevent them—Let me—let me—A few minutes will bring me to myself—Where is Agatha?

‘*Anhalt.* I will go, and fetch her. [*Exit Anhalt at an upper entrance.*]

‘*Baron.* Stop! Let me first recover a little. [*Walks up and down, sighing bitterly—looks at the door through which Anhalt left the room.*] That door she will come from—That was once the dressing-room of my mother—From that door I have seen her come many times—have been delighted with her lovely smiles—How shall I now behold her altered looks! Frederick must be my mediator.—Where is he? Where is my son?—Now I am ready—my heart is prepared to receive her—Haste! haste! Bring her in. [*He looks stedfastly at the door—Anhalt leads on Agatha—The Baron runs and clasps her in his arms—Supported by him, she sinks on a chair which Amelia places in the middle of the stage—The Baron kneels by her side, holding her hand.*]

‘*Baron.* Agatha, Agatha, do you know this voice?

‘*Agatha.* Wildenhaim.

‘*Baron.* Can you forgive me?

‘*Agatha.* I forgive you. [*embracing him.*]

‘*Frederick* [*as he enters*]. I hear the voice of my mother!—Ha! mother! father! [*Frederick throws himself on his knees by the other side of his mother—She clasps him in her arms.—Amelia is placed on the side of her father attentively viewing Agatha—Anhalt stands on the side of Frederick with his hands gratefully raised to heaven.*]

p. 88.

The favourable reception given to this piece and to the *Stranger*, will, we hope, convince our dramatists, that the aid of buffoonery is not indispensable.

Observations on the Structure, Economy, and Diseases of the Foot of the Horse, &c. By Edward Coleman. (Continued from p. 155.)

‘It is of great importance’ (Mr. Coleman says) ‘to preserve the frog sound, for, when cut, it becomes highly susceptible of every impression: we might with as much wisdom remove the skin of the human foot, when obliged to walk on stones, without shoes.’

p. 35.

In this sentence, by *sound*, the author seems to mean *entire*, and to intimate that, when the horny or outer frog is in part removed, what remains is not sufficient to defend the inner or fleshy frog from being bruised.

‘Granite and other hard substances’ (he observes) ‘have no effect’ (ill, we suppose, is understood) ‘on the frog, when it is preserved, and the hoof properly shod: but, where it is soft and tender, in consequence of being cut, and raised by a thick heeled shoe, one stroke from a projecting stone will produce pain, while perpetual pressure, with a proper shoe, is attended with salutary effects.’ p. 36.

The principle chiefly recommended in this section is, that the frog should be kept as much as possible in contact with the ground, as it will thus become extremely hard, and less liable to be injured than when it is soft, will prevent the heels from contracting, be enabled to perform its other functions to the greatest advantage, and be preserved in its original condition.

In our capacity of reviewers, it is our duty to detect and expose every attempt to bring forward old ideas as new ones; and, as Mr. Coleman has not acknowledged his obligations in this respect, we deem it necessary to state, that the *substance* of this section is to be found in the Cours d’Hippiatrique of La-Fosse, under the article *Ferrure*. Our author, indeed, has considerably expanded the ideas of the French writer, and has adduced some ingenious arguments in support of them; but he has not entirely convinced us that this practice, carried to the extent he recommends, is free from defects. — He affirms, that ‘the external frog is composed of soft elastic horn, and is totally insensible;’ and he makes use of the following argument in defence of *original* organisation.

‘Any man in the least acquainted with the wisdom of nature will be convinced, that, if the bars had been of no use, they would not have been created. As they are always found in a natural hoof, the conclusion is self-evident, that they are of some use.’

This, we think, is sound logic. We therefore beg Mr. Coleman’s permission to employ it here, and to substitute a few other words, which only affect the nature of the fact, without altering the force of the reasoning. ‘Any man in the least acquainted with the wisdom of nature will be convinced, that, if the softness of the frog were of no use, the frog would not have been *soft in the state of nature*. As it is always found soft in a colt at grass, the conclusion is self-evident that *this softness* is of some use.’

It is known that hard bodies have the property of transmitting through their substance any motion communicated to their surface more readily than soft ones, and that, the more

dense is the body, the greater is the velocity of the motion. When machinery of any kind is in regular motion in one direction, and a considerable blow is given to it in a different one, a jar is produced, which renders the motion irregular, and tends to spoil the machinery; and where blows of this kind are apprehended, a soft elastic body is placed to receive them, and, by its spring, to cut off the shock. The foot of the horse is intended to receive a constant succession of blows; and nature has endeavoured to prevent the bones of the different joints in the legs from being jarred and interrupted in their movements, by placing the frog, a soft and very elastic cushion, to receive the blows and obstruct the propagation of the shocks.

It is a fact that the frog, by bearing against the ground at every step, becomes much harder than it would be if it were only to come against it occasionally: but it is also a fact, that, as it acquires hardness, it loses its yielding quality, which, in our opinion, is essential to the due performance of its functions. It is only by art that the frog is made to come in contact with the ground at every step. If this circumstance had been necessary, or even the most advantageous for the foot, we may presume that it would not have been left to the sagacity of man to make the discovery, but rather that the frog would have been originally constructed on such a plan as would have ensured its being constantly in such a situation. Now, as we have before observed, that, in the foot of a colt at grass, the frog is much oftener short of, than on a level with, the heels, we submit it to better physiologists than we are, to determine whether it is not probable that the frog was intended to come in contact with the ground occasionally, rather than at every step. By the continual pressure, its elasticity is diminished; but, by pressure merely occasional, its flexibility is preserved, and comes into use when it is particularly wanted. In slow movements, the proportional weight of the body is thrown upon each limb slowly and without much force, and the hind tendons are able to bear it with perfect safety, without the frog pressing on the ground; but in quick movements, where the weight is thrown with rapidity and great force on the back of the leg, the tendons would be liable to be strained or even ruptured, were they not supported behind and below; and then it is that the frog, being driven against the ground, receives the blow, spreads, and, by its elastic property, breaks the shock.

The joint within the hoof, commonly called the coffin-joint, is formed of three bones, so connected, as to have considerable play in the sound state. To preserve this play, nature appears to have wisely rendered the frog soft and elastic, as the crust and horny sole are made hard and less elastic, to

secure and defend the interior parts of the foot from injury. Indeed, a longitudinal section of the foot shows that the shuttle-bone plays on the surface of the flexor tendon, and forces the sensible frog downward in quick and strong movements. Hence it is evident, that hardness in the horny frog, destroying its natural elasticity, must hinder the descent of the tendon, and, like an over-tight shoe in the human subject, must cramp and impede the action of the joint, and ultimately produce disease.

The original softness of the frog is also connected with a function which we must not pass over in silence: a fluid of a peculiar smell is thrown out by the frog; and, when this has long remained in contact with its surface, it becomes putrid, dissolves the parts where it accumulates most (as in the side fissures), constituting what is called a thrush, and, if neglected, degenerates into canker. Upon the same principle, the cuticle, between the toes of men who are uncleanly in their persons, is dissolved.

We agree with Mr. Coleman in condemning, *for general use*, high-heeled shoes, which almost entirely prevent the frog from coming in contact with the ground, as they tend to produce diseases in that part. On the other hand, it is reasonable to suppose, that the continual pressure of the frog on the ground, by hardening its surface, will considerably impede the due secretion and escape of its perspirable matter. In support of this reasoning, we may remark, that many horses, which have had their frogs hardened by long-continued pressure on the ground, and have been much used, frequently shift the weight of the body, when standing in the stable, from one fore-foot to the other, as if uneasy, although there may be no other indication of disease than the heat and dryness of the feet. Such horses, when taken out of the stable, are more disposed to canter than to trot, because in cantering they use the hind parts more than in trotting, and thus relieve their fore-feet. To moisten the lower part of the feet, tends to a removal of the symptoms of uneasiness, and more especially, if the hard surface of the frog be pared a little, and kept from constantly pressing on the ground. The cut surfaces of such frogs have frequently been found speckled with a great number of small red points of coagulated blood.

The frog is certainly less liable, when it is hard, to be cut by flints or other sharp substances, than when it is soft: but accidents of this nature occur so rarely, that the advantage obtained in this respect will by no means over-balance the inconveniencies which constantly accompany its hardness: and although the contact of the frog with the ground at every step may tend to prevent contractions in the heels, yet we are of

opinion, that this end may be attained by less objectionable means.

Upon the whole, we are disposed to maintain, that to render the horny frog hard, is to counteract the original intention of nature, as, the harder it becomes, the more the action of the coffin-joint is restrained, the frog is the less capable of spreading, or of adapting itself to the surface on which it falls, its spring is the more diminished, and it is the more calculated to transmit shocks to the parts which are above it.

The second section relates to the 'common practice of shoeing horses, and its consequences.' In this part of the work, the writer charges farriers with greater abuses than they really commit, without considering that he thus injures the cause which he wishes to serve, and raises doubts in the minds of his readers with regard to the general authenticity of his statements.

'Before any shoe be fitted to the hoof, the bars are totally, and the frog partly, removed by an instrument called the butteris. If it be true, that the bars are made to prevent the heels from contraction, or, indeed, if the bars have any function, that function must be lost when they are destroyed.' P. 40.

The practice of cutting away much of the lower part of the hoof is still too general, though it has been decried by all the writers who have treated of shoeing for some years past; and we agree with our author that mischief is produced by it.

'The bars, or binders, as they are termed, are two in number. They are placed between the frog and sole; and, at the heels, form a broad solid junction with the crust. The toe, or small part of the bar, sometimes reaches externally nearly as far as the toe of the frog. The bars within the hoof are laminated in the same manner as the internal part of the crust, and are attached to the horny sole. The insensible laminæ are intimately connected with the laminæ of the sensible sole.' P. 27.

Farriers are certainly too much in the habit of scooping or hollowing the external part of the bars; but they never cut them away totally, as, if they should do so, the sensible sole above would become bare, and the horse would immediately be lamed. This we understand to be the fact; and, if only part of the bars be removed, the author's conclusion respecting the destruction of their functions can only be true in part.

'The removal of the bars is termed, opening the heels; and is performed for the express purpose, that the heels may not contract, or the heels of the shoe press upon the sole, and occasion corns. But it is rather unfortunate, that this operation, intended to prevent

corns, and contracted heels, should be the remote cause of the very diseases designed to be obviated.' P. 41.

Here Mr. Coleman seems to have had in view the following passage of M. Soleyfel, who wrote on this subject in 1744.—'On appelle ouvrir les talons, lorsque le maréchal en parant le pied coupe le talon près de la fourchette, et l'emporte jusqu'au haut à un doigt de la couronne, en sorte qu'il sépare les quartiers du talon, et par ce moyen il affame le pied et le fait ferrer: ce qu'ils appellent ouvrir un talon, est proprement le faire ferrer.' Parfait Maréchal, seconde partie.

The function of the frog, as a stop, must be injured by the removal of a considerable portion of it; and we think that it will seldom be found necessary to take away any more than the ragged parts.

As the crust is always lowered before the shoe is put on, and the sole generally thinned, we naturally expected that the author would have touched upon this part of the process of preparing the hoof for the shoe, as well as that which relates to the bars and the frog; and we are the more disappointed in this respect, as we are of opinion, that to hollow the sole leads to consequences nearly as injurious to the safety of the parts within the hoof, as the practice so strongly reprobated by Mr. Coleman. From his silence on this head, we conclude, either that the latter circumstance has escaped his notice, which we can scarcely suppose, or that he approves the practice, which we have as much difficulty in believing. Whatever may have been the cause of the omission, the description of the usual mode of preparation is rendered imperfect by it.

We have proceeded to greater length in the examination of this subject than we at first intended; but we conceive the public to be interested in every thing which relates to the preservation of so useful an animal as the horse.

The Study and Practice of the Law considered, in their various Relations to Society. In a Series of Letters. By a Member of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

THE study of the law is obviously a subject of great importance; and various productions have appeared, in which the authors have professed to point out the most eligible mode of directing the attention of the student. It may, however, be remarked of those publications, that in many instances they merely repeat the advice attributed to eminent lawyers, and that in others, by treating law more as a profession than as a science, the compilers exhibit no novelty of sentiment or depth of speculation. To combine general principles with

professional maxims — to erect the superstructure of legal sagacity on the foundation of philosophical knowledge — is the task of the accomplished lawyer ; and any production which unfolds the best means of acquiring so enviable a distinction, must be considered as worthy of great applause. We trust that the work before us will be found to be of this description : the author's abilities appear fully competent for his subject ; and he has treated it in a comprehensive manner, omitting no opportunity of illustration from the sources of general literature, and neglecting the discussion of no topic interesting by its practical importance to the youthful candidates for forensic eminence.

The work consists of a series of letters, addressed to a young friend ; and, though it might perhaps have appeared with more dignity in another form, yet that of epistolary correspondence, by giving greater scope to freedom of expostulation, to the use of the *argumentum ad hominem*, and to the adoption of a familiar liveliness of style, possesses advantages strikingly adapted to the purposes of didactic composition.

The writer prepares the mind of his pupil for the study of our municipal institutions, by adverting to those masterly specimens of literature and oratory which have been transmitted from the ancients.

‘ What is there that is valuable in human life ; what is there that is profound in the mental science ; what is there that is beautiful and sublime in the imagination, that is not depicted and enriched in the writings of the antient classics ? The world untutored, yet teeming with the seeds of knowledge, lay before them ; they were as gods living among men in the infancy of human understanding ; what they uttered and what they acted, bore the first stamp of the superiority of wisdom ; some of their works have reached us through successive generations with an undiminished brilliancy, and they will doubtless remain a monument of the power of human genius to the latest ages of men.

‘ Whether, therefore, we contemplate the writings of the ancients as the genuine relics of antiquity, or whether we regard them as models of genius, of learning, and of taste, we cannot fail to derive a manly gratification and a real improvement from the perusal of them : nor has it, I believe, ever yet been found that he, who being capable, from the force of education, of such a perusal, has yet remained unimpressed by their beauties, has ever been worthy of the name of either a great or a good man. I would not hesitate to say of such a person what our bard long before me has said, perhaps, with much less justice, of the man who is insensible to the charms of music ; “ he is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils ; let no such man be trusted.” p. 93.

This is a just and animated encomium on excellence that cannot be too much applauded or too strongly proposed for imitation; we have indeed observed, in every part of this work, the warmest exhortations to the student to 'drink deep' of those classic fountains which so much invigorate the powers of imagination and of reason.

The following passages are also deserving of approbation.

"I would wish you to accustom your ear to a familiarity with as many technical terms of art as possible; there is a mode of doing this without deducting one moment from the time you mean to dedicate to your more important studies. While you are, to appearance, amusing yourself, or transacting some common affair, you may be pursuing this necessary study. For instance; you are upon a visit to some friend who has workmen employed about his house or grounds; it will be no unnatural thing for your host now and then to view the progress of the improvements for which he is some time or other to pay, and, peradventure, you will be induced to accompany him. Now, as the conversation between your friend and his workmen will doubtless be to the business in hand, you will hear the various terms in which the carpenter, the bricklayer, the smith, display the accidents of their particular occupations. Here is an opportunity of obtaining the information you want, without being indebted to any man; for they from whom you obtain it, will be the last men in the world to suspect that you are seeking for it. I have mentioned this merely for example, and to excite you to have your ears ever on the watch. Every street in the metropolis, and every road that leads into it, abounds with instances from which knowledge of this nature may be daily drawn: nor need you be ashamed of this employment; it is related of one of the most accomplished men this country can boast, that at his table were frequently to be found the eminent in almost every branch of science, from the common mechanic to the most profound logician. With each of these he was able to converse familiarly in the technical terms appropriate to their respective occupations: it would be an affront to your understanding if I were to ask you, whether you thought this to be a blemish in his character?" P. 163.

"I have already remarked, that the courts of justice, in which you will by and by appear, are open to all conditions of men, but the majority of causes that go there for decision arise among the middle and inferior classes of the community; and in your business as junior, you will perceive your ground with a wonderful clearness if you have obtained the advantages I recommend. The witnesses are commonly artisans, mechanics, carmen and so on. These people have a language which they think peculiar to their own sphere, and they are very proud of it; their surprise, therefore, at finding a man in your situation not wholly unacquainted

with their maxims and phrases, will presently give way to that sort of confidence which generally springs up between persons who, according to common speech, are said to understand one another. Now, is not this the very sentiment you wish to cherish? What is your aim in examining a witness? Is it not to obtain the truth? And are not men usually warmed to confession rather by confidence than by fear or aversion? The fact is, the honest witness is pleased to find a momentary freedom with you whom he has, most probably, been taught to dread, and he opens his heart to you with all the unregulated ardour of a rude friendship: it is not unlikely but an hour afterwards he may wish to recal what he has said; your purpose is, however, answered.' P. 165.

We request the student to attend to these observations on a talent of which the possession is so essential to the success of the advocate at common law.

The style and arrangement of the eloquent barrister are thus characterised.

'How rare, but how pleasing a quality is that whereby an advocate is enabled to express his thoughts, not only in words blameless in point of grammatical accuracy, but in combinations of those words that convey the idea in its undiminished strength and beauty! How admirable is that talent which connects and regulates and disposes a number of ideas in such a manner, that their relations to each other are preserved in beautiful order of succession, until, at length, their brilliancy and power, which were before dissipated or obscured, are concentrated to one point! How ably does a speaker, thus happily endowed, conduct his hearers through every maze, marking each distinction as it arises, so that the whole force of the mind is drawn forth at his will, till at length an irresistible ray of brightness beams forth, and conviction follows!

'A multitude of words will not of themselves effect this; it must be the consequence of an artful and a happy disposition of the reflection and the judgment of the speaker. Does a man rise to state a case? Let him not confound with that statement flying and half-formed deductions. Does he intend to make observations upon this case? Let him not form another case from his own fancy or inclinations. Is it his intention to explain? Let him use the plain and nervous language of explanation; let him not mingle with it, by fits and starts, the terms of expostulation or intreaty. In short, he must be able, not only to assign to ideas and expressions their proper place, but their proper force also; so that they whom he addresses may not be harassed with an endless confusion of misapplied terms and inadequate ideas.

'Every man, in stating the circumstances of a case whereon he is presently to argue, must remember that he is telling a tale with which he is no way related but as the organ or medium

whereby it is made known; nor ought he to consider the task as a humiliating one. The most animated and sublime of ancient orators was no less remarkable for the clearness and simplicity of his statements than for the strength of his reasoning, and the brilliancy and power of his declamation: the advocate will not, therefore, despise the plain and simple character of a relator of facts. But this character is presently changed for one of a more interesting nature; he comes forward ready to review the circumstances which he has been stating, to comment upon them, and to shew them in their true colours: he is to reason upon them with coolness and discrimination, and to draw from them such consequences as may best suit the purpose of his argument: and here it is that he is to be particularly clear, not confounding facts of one description with those of another, but assigning to each its proper place, and assisting, with all his art, truth in its natural operation. P. 234.

Lord Bolingbroke, who, whatever may be his philosophical demerits, is a competent authority on the subject of the present work, pronounces an intimate acquaintance with history indispensably necessary in a profound lawyer. The importance of this species of knowledge to the student is also enforced by our author; and its effects on the juridical character are truly described.

‘ In an appeal to sober sense and to experience, the advantages that arise, in this respect, to the advocate from the study of history will presently be found to be of great value; they form a most forcible contrast with the disadvantages that frequently result from an ignorance of that science. How often would it have proved a most tedious and almost insupportable task to those, whose high office it is to hear and determine upon the arguments of counsel, had they who have filled the character of an advocate at the English bar been generally unversed in the events recorded in history! How confined would, to this moment, have been the legal notions of our courts! How spiritless, and, perhaps, unjust their interpretations of the law, had they who preside in those august tribunals derived their principles of truth, in the administration of civil and criminal justice, from the letter of the law alone! On the other hand, what grand and striking displays of the reasoning powers! what extensiveness of remark! what acumen of comparison! what a various energy of combination mark the argument of that advocate whose mind has been illuminated by a contemplation of the hidden causes from which, as we have already remarked, laws in particular, among all other human subjects, derive their true character and complete force.’ P. 335.

Those who have attentively investigated the history of the human mind, may have discovered that habit frequently pre-

vents the expansion of genius, or that, if not so potently mischievous, yet, like the snail crawling on the beautiful statue, it defiles the excellence which it cannot obliterate. Any advice, calculated to guard the student against the approach of this insidious adversary, should be gratefully received. Our author has performed the salutary task; and, from his various remarks on the subject, we offer two extracts, one as correctly discriminating the nature of habit, the other as a judicious amplification of the precept of Horace, *Nil admirari*.

‘Habit is of a dark and subtle nature; it silently spreads its influence over the mind, which it weakens by degrees, until at length it is, in some cases, and these too of no rare description, totally corrupted and debased; it usually comes in a pleasing form, that at once engages the imagination and lays the understanding asleep; by the gentleness of its operations it arouses no fear; by the smoothness of its voice it lulls every suspicion. When by these means it has secured its conquest, it so artfully entwines itself with the system of our nature, that we fondly imagine it to be a part of ourselves, nor do we cease to cherish it, until we fall the miserable sacrifice of its power.’ p. 388.

‘You perceive in the manners of an eminent advocate something that charms you; he has a peculiarity in his action which you think delightful; you are determined to make it your own, and that so thoroughly that every minutia is copied with the most anxious exactness. Another possesses great rapidity of transition from one part of his subject to another; you are instantly struck with admiration at the bold yet not ungrateful confusion it produces; and you are resolved not to be happy until you have made so transcendent a power your own. A third displays a glow of imagination, a brilliancy of figure that enchant you; immediately do you relinquish every other pursuit, every other study, to enrich your speeches with figures, and to increase the ardour of your imagination. A fourth declaims with an unequalled elegance of phraseology; from the moment you hear him, the choice of words, the smoothing of your expression, the rounding of your periods become your nicest care. A fifth has a particular method of stating his facts, or of drawing his conclusions; you conceive you have never yet heard any method so desirable; you discard, without ceremony, your own mode; you are in love with the plain style; your figures are forgotten; and you pursue, with all the eagerness of a new enthusiasm, this fresh object of your desires.

‘Now by thus addicting yourself to imitation, your own powers are insensibly weakened. But mark another consequence; as it increases with you into habit, every new manner brings with it a superior charm, till at length you are whirled away by a confusion of ideas that totally prevents you from acquiring or esta-

blishing any manner of your own, and that blinds your judgment in the necessary discrimination of what is fit or not fit to be appropriated to your own use. Of the instances I have mentioned the majority are qualifications in themselves of an excellent nature, and which, therefore, every public speaker should endeavour to attain; but the misfortune is, you do not draw them from their proper source. You are not charmed with the native principle of these things, but you are allured by the manner of the man; and what is the consequence? You adopt his manner, and instantly in you it is ridiculous, because nature, the pure source of all excellence, hath given to every man certain and different powers of modes, which, however by observation and labour he may refine and improve, will ever retain their original character in spite of every attempt to uproot them; and besides, you become in time the plaything of every man's fancy; the first changes the peculiarity you admired for another, which, from its novelty or some other cause, appears still more charming; you instantly relinquish the former, and seize the latter with equal eagerness; the second acquires a graver and more solemn mode of speech; you are affected by the dignity of this new mode, and you endeavour to make it your own; and so of the rest. Thus, by the influence of habit, you are always restless and always ridiculous: instead of seeking to establish a manner of your own, and to enrich it by adopting so much of what is excellent in others, as may suit with your own original capacity, you are disordered by a habit of imitation, that, from its folly, produces nothing but weakness and distraction, even when exercised, as I have shewn you, upon subjects that contain in themselves a clear and decided nature of excellence.'

P. 389.

From the extracts given, it may be perceived that these letters are the effusions of no common or superficial pen, and that the writer has contemplated his subject in every possible view. In some instances, indeed, he seems to enforce the demonstration of truths that may be thought self-evident. This, however, is a task which is frequently rendered necessary by the infirmity of the human mind; for, as the penetrating Bacon has observed, 'we think according to reason, and we talk according to rule, but we act according to custom.'

Some readers may think that the substance of the book would have admitted more compression, and that the author is not uniformly happy in his style; but these are slight blemishes, in comparison with the intrinsic merit of a production so well calculated to form the principles of the youthful mind, and to direct its emulation through the honourable but difficult paths of the legal science.

An Essay on Design in Gardening, first published in 1768. Now greatly augmented. Also, a Revision of several later Publications on the same Subject. By George Mason. 8vo. 5s. White.

THIS essay was first published in 1768, and was noticed in our 25th volume (p. 469) with respect, though not with unqualified approbation. The subject was then new, but has been lately expanded rather than improved, decorated with showy meretricious ornaments, frittered by fancied novelties and affected refinements. The great improvements, in modern English gardening, were the abolition of the stiff regularity of the Dutch school, and the substitution of the rural beauties which nature offers, divested of harshness and *grossièreté*. An object so simple, and seemingly of such easy execution, has been variously distorted, and the subject of endless disquisition. In reality, it combines minute questions of considerable difficulty; one is, what objects deserve to be called gross and harsh; a point which claims attention, lest, in refining too far, we cut nature by a pattern as precise in another way, as our ancestors adopted in *their* horticultural ornaments, and leave only the general, indistinct features, which no longer interest. Another difficulty is, the adaptation of the *kind* and *degree* of ornament to the situation, so that, while the rugged features which constitute the distinction are preserved, the polish may be gradually regulated, according to the distance from which the scenery is viewed. In this case, the mansion is considered as the station. These are the great sources of the disputes between professional artists, each aiming at picturesque * effect, though in different paths.

Mr. Mason, one of the earliest and most judicious directors of national taste, expanded in his more mature age his former ideas, and defended them against those who had impugned his precepts. In the conclusion of this edition, some of the later publications are reviewed.

In the former edition, he mentioned that the oriental gardens were called paradises. Some of the additions to this part we shall transcribe,

‘ The fullest description extant of any ancient paradise is of one said to be situate in the island of Panchæa, near the coast of Ara-

* Our author and some others seem at a loss to define the term *picturesque*. It accords with the painters' ideas of the circumstances essential to the composition of a good landscape, and is to be explained from their rules in Mr. Gilpin's manner. REV.

bia. The period of its flourishing state must be referred (according to its latest historian *) to the time of Alexander's immediate successors. Diodorus tells us, that it was adjacent and appertaining to a temple of Jupiter Tryphylus; that it had so copious a spring in it, as to form a navigable river from the fountain-head; that this stream for the length of near half a mile was enclosed on either side with artificial margins of stone; but that it branched out into various currents, which ranged over meadows, and watered many a stately and shady grove upon the banks: that the paradise was enriched with palm trees, and vines, and every kind of delicious fruit, and by a variety of flowery lawns, and by planes and cypresses of stupendous magnitude, with thickets of myrtle, and of laurel and bay. This inclosure (as described) must necessarily have been of very considerable extent — for a garden. What pity is it then, that so material a piece of evidence, for such a place having actually existed of old, should be destitute of credibility! Strabo † after Polybius, and Plutarch in his *Osiris*, agree in asserting, that there never was any temple of a Jupiter Triphylus, or any Panchæa. Nor does a single ancient geographer mention such an island. Yet may it not be concluded, that such was the style of Persian paradises in the reign of Cassander ‡? Near seven centuries later than this period, there was one Asiatic paradise still existing; and it is specified by Milton among those, that might possibly be compared to his garden of Eden —

—that sweet grove
Of Daphne || by Orontes, and th' inspir'd
Castalian spring. P. L. B. 4. ver. 272. P. 12.

The observations are not very greatly enlarged; but many of them are improved. Incidental remarks are interspersed, which show an acute observation and a correct taste: one instance we shall select.

* *Convenience.*

‘ Though the principal end of landscape-gardening is to please

* See Diod. Sic. lib. 5. c. 42, 3, 4. But the period of its existence is deduced from a fragment of lib. 6; which also speaks of the paradise's elevated situation.

† Lib. 2 and 7.

‡ The Greek author whom Diodorus copies (Euhemerus by name) lived under Cassander. His work was translated into Latin prose by the poet Ennius: of which translation very scanty fragments remain. Such was the authority of Ennius with the Latin poets, that Lucretius, Virgil, Tibullus, Ovid, Claudian, all speak of Panchæa.

|| This place is rather loosely described in the *Antiochichus* of the florid Libanius (*Opera*, vol. ii. p. 380, 1.), but more closely by Strabo (lib. 16.), who makes the grove in his time nine miles in circumference.

the eye, yet that end can never be perfectly answered by any thing, that manifestly militates against the comforts of life, or against the facility of performing ordinary functions. It becomes then the business of a designer to distinguish, where convenience should be his leading principle. The road to a mansion (being a necessary thing) certainly falls within the province of this article. The line of such road should appear to be regulated by the most simple and obvious rules. Every variation of its direction should be governed by the swells of the ground, or by the interference of obstacles. When artists by profession, besotted with the notion of a sweep, disregard what they should most attend to, the impropriety of their method will be striking. It may indeed happen, that attending closely to convenience (even in its own province) may be hurtful to other parts of a design, where the beautiful ought to prevail. In such cases the main study of the designer should be to conceal the sacrifice of convenience. From no one point of view should the whole line of deviation be visible. I say the whole, because it is much easier to create a reason for each particular turn, than for a general circuitry.

‘It most frequently suits convenience, that the entrance-front of a mansion should not adjoin to a garden. Yet a disposition consonant to this idea often creates two other inconveniences. If the ground-floor is not sufficiently elevated, there is a difficulty in guarding the windows of this front from cattle, without obstructing the view from within. The second inconvenience is how to conceal the garden-fence externally; which fence must come to the angle of the mansion, unless the whole of the building stands in pasture — no eligible circumstance. Hollies are an admirable expedient for conquering this latter difficulty. The former is a local one, and its cure must be locally suggested.’ p. 96.

The publications revised are the ‘*Observations on Modern Gardening*,’ published in 1770—the elegant poem entitled the ‘*English Garden*,’ in four books, the first of which appeared in 1772—the ‘*Village Memoirs*,’ an epistolary novel, containing *Strictures on Landscape Gardening* (1775)—Mr. Walpole’s ‘*Treatise on modern Gardening*’ (1780); and the ‘*Essay on the Picturesque*,’ by Mr. Price. From these we offer no extracts, as the observations are miscellaneous, and refer to the different works. The appendix on bowers, showing them to have been retired chambers or residences, and not arbours, as Mr. Walpole supposes, is a judicious antiquarian essay. We are unwilling to mutilate it; and the whole is too long for our purpose.

The Treatise of Cicero, de Officiis; or, his Essay on Moral Duty. Translated and accompanied with Notes and Observations, by William M'Cartney, Minister of Old Kilpatrick. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

THE admirable Treatise *de Officiis*, which Cicero composed expressly for the use of his son, is so well known, that it would be superfluous to say any thing here on the subject. Our attention is due only to the present translation; and of that we shall permit Mr. M'Cartney to give some account in his own words.

* The following translation was undertaken, not because the translator had been accustomed either to read or admire the original, more than the other works of the same author; but, because a translation of it, accommodated to the present state of the English language, seemed to be much wanted.

* The notes and observations are intended for the young and the unlearned only. They are short, as it was deemed necessary to introduce as little as possible of what is to be found in books now every where to be met with; and, because the mistakes of our author, on the subject of moral science, though proper to be noticed to the young reader, are yet so very obvious as to need but little discussion. Long disquisitions, connected with the various topics which occur in the following work, seemed altogether inconsistent with our design. The learned, in this instance, need neither translation nor notes, nor observations. In the present and advanced state of moral knowledge, the Offices of Cicero can be no otherwise regarded, than as an imperfect or rude monument of antiquity, or recommended as an introductory book well worth the perusal of the young beginner.

* The translation itself was intended to be neither quite literal, nor, like many of the most admired translations of the present day, a mere paraphrase. It was proposed to keep as near the original as the English idiom would permit, that the translation might be as fair a representation as possible of the author's sentiments and style. Wherever the original is broken or inelegant, the translation will be found to correspond, in consequence of the principle by which we have been guided.' p. iii.

Where Mr. M'Cartney has discovered Cicero to be 'broken and inelegant,' we know not; but we will venture to predict, that his translation will be considered as useless, and will soon be carried

— in vicum vendentem thus, et odores,

'Et piper, et quicquid chartis amicitur ineptis.'

The learned reader has no need of it; and the English scholar

will look in vain for the beauties of sentiment and expression, which distinguish the productions of the illustrious orator and philosopher of Rome.

The following specimen will confirm the truth of these observations, and show that the volume which we are now examining, possesses neither the correctness of a literal, nor the elegance of a free translation.

‘ My son Marcus, though, after a year devoted to study under Cratippus, a master of unrivalled eminence, and at Athens, where science may be improved by elegance of manners, you ought to be well acquainted with philosophy in its speculative and practical departments; yet, as I have uniformly found it useful to myself to unite the Roman with the Greek literature, not only in philosophy but in exercises of elocution, you ought, I apprehend, to pursue the same course, that you may acquire equal skill in both kinds of composition. In one of them I seem to have given so much aid to my countrymen, that not only they who are unacquainted with Greek learning, but the learned themselves, may think they have gained something for the improvement of their eloquence and their judgment.

‘ Improve therefore under the greatest philosopher of the present age. Improve as long as you find it desirable; and it should continue desirable, till your proficiency is such, that you may not hereafter regret the neglect of your advantages. In perusing my writings, which differ but little from those of the Peripatetics, who, as well as myself, profess themselves followers of Socrates and Plato, think for yourself on every subject: I mean not to restrain you; but your Latin style, be assured, will be enriched by the perusal. Nor let me be understood to have expressed myself so, with a view to the indulgence of my vanity, for to many, I yield the honours of science; but when I assume to myself the province of teaching you the aptness, perspicuity, and elegance of speech, which belong to an orator, it is a privilege, which, after spending my life in the study, I claim in some measure with justice to myself. I therefore recommend to you warmly, my dear Cicero, not only the perusal of my orations; but of those books on philosophy also, which have already grown to an equal magnitude. Though, in the former, the language is more spirited and more apt to attract your attention; yet the smooth and simple composition of the latter deserves to be studied.’ P. 1.

The notes are such as many school-boys could have produced, without any other assistance than one of the popular editions, an abridgment of Roman history, and a classical dictionary. We do not find any index, table of contents, or even a translation of the *Argumenta Librorum* furnished by Erasmus.

Observations on the Manners and Customs of Italy, with Remarks on the vast Importance of British Commerce on that Continent; also, Particulars of the wonderful Explosion of Mount Vesuvius, taken on the Spot at Midnight, in June, 1794, when the beautiful and extensive City of Torre del Greco was buried under the blazing River of Lava from the Mountain; likewise, an Account of many very extraordinary Cures produced by a Preparation of Opium, in a Variety of obstinate Cases, according to the Practice in Asia; with many Physical Remarks collected in Italy, well deserving the Attention of most Families. By a Gentleman authorised to investigate the Commerce of that Country with Great-Britain. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

THIS work has engaged more of our attention than its real or apparent importance would seem to have required. The mysterious connection of the traveller, the 'authorised investigator of the commerce between Great-Britain and Italy,' and the quack, was not easily reconcileable; and, had it not been for some intrinsic evidence, that the author had really been in Italy, we might have supposed this volume to have been a hand-bill of a superior kind. We pretend not, after all our care, to unravel these mysteries, but shall give a general account of the work; and some happier Œdipus may explain the riddle.

The observations are of the most familiar kind that travellers offer, and are, in general, trite and trifling. Stories are introduced, sometimes humorous, occasionally indelicate, which, if our recollection does not fail us, we have seen in the works of Boccacio, or some similar novelist.

The great object of the author is to recommend opium, not the common drug of the shops, as that would be too obvious and easily obtained; but the genuine preparation of Asia, which he procures from a friend. The virtues of this medicine are explained at some length; and they are so numerous and important, that every person is highly blameable, if he should for a moment be ill, or should ever *die*. On the whole, the travels are calculated to please, when the mind wants amusement without much study, or employment with little exertion. The marvellous is, however, too conspicuous.

We shall select a specimen of the writer's manner; and, as the practice of the courts of law in Italy is a subject the least hackneyed, we shall transcribe his observations upon it.

'Don Filippo conducted me first to the civil law court. The ascent to it was dirty beyond description, and the stairs being crowded with lawyers, hackney writers, and advocates, passing and re-

passing, made it difficult to ascend. In this court there were five judges on the bench, to whom very little respect was paid; the advocates indecently talking and laughing while the written process was reading, for all causes are carried on in that way. We sat down at the board before the judges, and my friend desired me to pay attention to an advocate then reading the case of his client. He was one of the most distinguished; his expressions were so energetic, and the facts so clearly stated in sublime language, that I could not but imagine the cause would soon be decided in favour of his client. My friend told me that this cause had been before the court seven years, and it was not unlikely that it would continue as many more. After staying three hours, and hearing the opposite advocate, we quitted the court, and returning home, he said, "You seem surpris'd that causes are so long determining; but you must know that we have in this city lawyers of all denominations surpassing the number of eleven thousand, and all will live; and when it might be thought by strangers that a verdict was near at hand, new suborned witnesses are procured to controvert what had been before produced in evidence." I told him that I had heard it was not uncustomary for the judges to be bribed; "I am sorry, (said he) to be of the same opinion, for their pay is so small, and being obliged to keep up a certain rank equal to their dignity, they are liable to such temptations."

"As soon as the pleadings on a cause are over, strangers retire, and the judges proceed to a verdict without much deliberation, because the sentence will undergo perhaps ten revisions. This is the cruel scourge of the Neapolitans; and the civil law may be said to be nothing more than a disorder, for there is no real constitution in the state, and sovereign decision is also very uncertain."

"In Sicily it is worse; the haughty barons imprison their vassals by a written order, assigning no other reason than "It is our pleasure;" and they also punish with death their vassals with impunity."

"Criminal causes in Naples are also carried on by a written process; but such prisoners as have no means to employ an advocate, have one appointed by the crown, called the defender of the poor. When the sentence of death is passed, no execution can take place till the criminal confesses the guilt, which if not done immediately, he is put into a shocking dungeon, and only a small quantity of bread and water is allowed him, so that he either expires in that confinement, or, confessing, he is carried to execution."

"During my practice, (said my friend) I was witness to many final decisions, both civil and criminal, which would shock the ears of humanity." He was going to recount them, but notice was given that dinner was on the table, and we joined his lady and amiable children.

"At seven o'clock the husband took leave of us to go to his female friend, and soon after I accompanied his wife to her father's house, where was a small, but agreeable society." P. 134.

' Having been several times in Rome and Naples, I frequently visited the civil and criminal courts. One case I related to you in my letter of the 21st of April, of a man who was executed at Naples, but who ought rather to have been confined as a madman, for such he really was. I will now mention another case, which also happened at Naples, of a young man of a noble family who murdered the husband of a woman he had debauched. On his trial one of the evidences against him set forth that he killed the husband with a pistol in a lane leading to his house, on each side of which were hedges full of shrubs. The prisoner's advocate said, that it had not been proved before the court that there ever was such a lane, and therefore petitioned that inspectors should be sent to examine the spot, and the sentence deferred five days. The judges (who were supposed to have been bribed) sent two persons to examine the spot. The young man's family having in the mean time bought the house, caused the hedges to be dug up and carried away, and the lane was ploughed up in common with the other ground. The inspectors returned an answer to court that no such lane could be discovered, on which the judges acquitted the prisoner.

' I am here on a cause now trying for the recovery of a sum of money which has been some years due to me; and although legally proved by bonds, the court seems inclined to help the debtor to evade payment, as he is protected by one of the cardinals. I hope soon to see the day when such church abuses will be done away.'
P. 206.

The accounts of the eruption of Mount Vesuvius, of the king of Naples, of friars, nuns, &c. differ little from the common stories of travellers, displaying no great extent of information or depth of research. The virtues of opium must be learned from the work itself; and the author's private disputes, which fill too large a space in the volume, cannot entertain or interest our readers.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C S.

Arguments for and against an Union between Great Britain and Ireland, considered. To which is prefixed a Proposal on the same Subject, by Josiah Tucker, D. D. Dean of Gloucester. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale. 1798.

FEW of our readers can be ignorant of this point, that an union between Great Britain and Ireland has been for some time in

contemplation. The measure has not, indeed, been proposed in the legislature of either kingdom; nor have the ministers of either realm avowed their intentions. The pamphlet before us, however, if we are not misinformed, is to be considered as the *avant-propos* of their intentions, and has been circulated by persons connected with those who are in authority, as a mean of founding the opinions of the people. The arguments on each side are drawn up with the appearance of candour; but, in many respects, they are rather specious than convincing; and, while the author censures certain arguments *against* the union as being *petitiones principii*, he not infrequently falls into the same mode of reasoning. He asks, for instance, what ground is there to assume that the catholics will oppose an union, though founded on protestant principles? To this it may be easily answered, that there is the ground of strong probability; for he had before informed us, that one effect of the union would be to *outnumber* the catholics of Ireland, who are at present the *majority*.

But, without entering the lists with this champion, we shall lay before our readers his sketch of the points which, it is supposed, will constitute the union and its benefits. These are, 1. The preservation of the protestant establishment, as a fundamental article; 2. a proper number of peers and commoners to sit in the parliament of the empire; 3. an equality of rights and privileges, and a fair adjustment of commerce; 4. an equitable arrangement of revenues, debts, and future taxes, suitable to our situation and powers; 5. the continuance of the civil administration in Ireland, accommodated to the new situation of the kingdom; 6. an arrangement for the catholic clergy; 7. some further provision to the dissenting clergy; 8. an arrangement with respect to tithes.

In all these points our author perceives no difficulties or disadvantages. Taking Scotland for an example, and referring to the federal government of North America, as well as to the instances in which France has incorporated conquered countries with her *indivisible* republic, he decides, that Ireland cannot be truly happy unless she be entirely united with Great Britain.

Thoughts on an Union. By Joshua Spencer, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1798.

These thoughts are directed against the proposed union. First Mr. Spencer maintains, that the opinions of dean Tucker, which are reprinted in the preceding tract, are of little consequence now, as they were formed before Ireland had obtained a free trade; and, secondly, he contends, that all the benefits proposed by an union may be procured without it, as Ireland has been progressively rising since the year 1782, the epoch of her commercial and constitutional emancipation. If it should be allowed, however, that the advantages of an union may preponderate, he doubts the competency of parliament to decide on such a measure without the direct ap-

probation of the people. The instance of Scotland is examined at great length; and he considers it as essentially different in most respects. It is much for his purpose also to allege that the Scottish union was achieved against the consent of the people.

It is certain, as this writer remarks, 'that upon no subject more interesting to his country can the enlightened Irishman employ his attention than upon that of an union. If it be a good measure for Ireland (he adds), it is only by examination and discussion that its advantages can be developed and illustrated; and if it be a bad measure, it is only by the same touchstones that its injurious consequences will be detected and exposed.' With pleasure we observe, that discussion has been applied in the first instance. The pamphlet which we last examined, is considered as coming from high authority: the present is merely one of many which will be published on this subject. It may not perhaps be difficult to prove that disadvantages as well as advantages are attached to the scheme of union: the great difficulty will be to balance these, and decide, to the conviction of all parties, which scheme will, in all human probability, be productive of the greatest benefit to both kingdoms.

A Timely Appeal to the Common Sense of the People of Great Britain in general, and of the Inhabitants of Buckinghamshire in particular, on the present Situation of Affairs; with References to the Opinions of most of the British and French Philosophers of the present Century. By J. Penn, Esq. Sheriff of Buckinghamshire. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1798.

This author, already known as a dramatic and miscellaneous writer, enters into a discussion of the topics of popular discontent which have been agitated more particularly since the French revolution. These he arranges under the following heads; 1. the restraints of religion and morality; 2. the unequal distribution of wealth; 3. inequality of rank; 4. the severity of our penal code, as understood by modern philosophers; 5. disregard of the goodwill expressed for us by the French; 6. religious establishment; 7. partial representation; 8. the imperfect diffusion of knowledge; 9. indisposition to peace; 10. the weight of taxes; 11. the discouragements of agriculture; 12. restrictions of trade; 13. the distresses of the poor; 14. ministerial influence; and, finally, an attachment to persons as well as things, usefully endeared to us by intrinsic merit and antiquity.

Some of these subjects are treated at considerable length, others more superficially. Under the head "Partial Representation," the author has digressed into a criticism on Mrs. Wolstonecraft's *Rights of Woman*; and, in various parts of the pamphlet, the style is so obscure as to render the meaning almost inaccessible. The work would have been far more useful, if Mr. Penn had borrowed more liberally from the common sense to which he appeals. In point of doctrine, he leans in general to the present order of things, and

in one instance only proposes a change; namely a system of rewards, instead of, or with a view of lessening the multitude of, our punishments. On this subject his sentiments display great humanity, and some knowledge of the human heart.

Observations on the Debates of the American Congress, on the Addresses presented to General Washington, on his Resignation, with Remarks on the Timidity of the Language held towards France; the Seizures of American Vessels by Great Britain and France; and on the relative Situations of those Countries with America. By Peter Porcupine. 8vo. 1s. Ogilvy. 1797.

It appears that the senate and representatives, in alluding to the conduct of France, which general Washington had mentioned in his address, held a language of the timid kind, at which Peter Porcupine, who is not conversant in such language, is highly offended. Had his advice been taken, the congress would certainly have employed terms that have not hitherto entered into the state-papers of contending nations. That body would have intimated to the French, that their government is a "bloody republic;" that their rulers are "a horde of base-born groveling tyrants," and "a gang of assassins;" that the people are "base, willing slaves, brutishly ignorant and illiterate wretches;" that "not one out of five hundred can spell his name;" and that they are "a nation of poor, cajoled, cozened, bullied, bamboozled devils!"

A Speculative Picture of Europe. Translated from the French of General Dumouriez, by John Joseph Stockdale. Illustrated with a Chart of Great Britain and Ireland, with the Coasts of France, Spain, Portugal, &c. exhibiting all the Channels, Harbours, Bays, and Islands, with the exact Bearings and Distances between any two Places. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1798.

Thoughts on the French Invasion of England. By General Dumouriez. Translated from the French. With the same Chart. 4to. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1798.

The former pamphlet is a complete translation of the *Tableau Speculatif de l'Europe*, and the latter comprehends only that part which regards England. Of that work we gave a copious account in the Appendix to our XXII^d. Vol. New Arr. The translations are, in general, executed with fidelity.

A Letter to the Hon. Charles James Fox: shewing how Appearances may deceive, and Friendship be abused!!! 8vo. 6d. Wright. 1798.

This letter principally relates to the evidence given by Mr. Fox on the trial of O'Connor, a subject which seems richly fertile in abuse of that gentleman and his adherents. The persons who appeared to the character of the prisoner on that occasion were deceived; and it is therefore thought fair to implicate their characters with his, and

accuse them of cunning and dissingenuity. But O'Connor's care in concealing his real designs from them might bear a very different construction.

FINANCE.

A new Enquiry into the Principles and Policy of Taxation, in the political System of Great Britain. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1798.

'While a system of extortion and oppression, of confiscation and fraud, actuates the policy of our implacable enemy, whereby they enable themselves to pursue the present sanguinary contest; the people of this country possess the satisfaction of knowing, that the national revenue can only be collected by means of legislative provisions, which are governed by the dictates of a prudent and legitimate policy; and are consistently sanctioned by the fundamental establishments of a system of public taxation at once liberal and necessary, useful and productive.'

The paragraph above quoted is in the first page of the book; and the following is very near the conclusion.

'It is well worth every man's reflection, that there really exists almost a physical impossibility to select any new objects of taxation, either of luxury or convenience, profit or speculation; for absolutely the most obvious objects are already exhausted: And it was not without solid and substantial reason, that the minister and his friends have so frequently challenged others to produce any substitute.' P. 121.

We should be obliged to the author if he would reconcile these two passages to each other, and show how a system of public taxation can be at once liberal and necessary, useful and productive, and at the same time be so stretched as to extend to almost every article of luxury or convenience, profit or speculation.

Why the work is entitled a new inquiry, we cannot discover, as it is rather an arrangement of the objects of taxation into classes than an examination of the principles on which at different periods various objects were selected, or a comparison of the advantages and disadvantages resulting from different modes of taxation. The land-tax, customs, excise, stamps, income, are subjects of considerable discussion; but the writer will not seem to our readers to have very enlarged views in his inquiry, when the main part of his work is to point out the legality of taxing the funds. The following is the conclusion of his reasonings.

'So long therefore as the English constitution lasts, it may consistently be affirmed that the power of parliament "is absolute and without controul."

'Hence it follows, as a natural and an indisputable consequence, that the parliament is legally competent to execute the su-

preme power and authority of the state; and unquestionably may, upon strict constitutional principles, repeal or alter any existing act of the legislature whatever.—These are strong assertions, but they are nevertheless just and indubitable; if so, our proposition is fortified upon the security of an impregnable basis, and we may consistently lay down the position, “that an act of parliament might lawfully be ordained for the purpose of imposing an equitable tax upon the holders of stock in any of the public funds.”
P. 88.

In other words an act of parliament may draw a sponge over the national debt—a constitutional doctrine without doubt; for parliament may alter, amend, or repeal any statute; but, where is the faith of that nation which should thus defraud its creditors?

A General View of a Plan of Universal and Equal Taxation.
8vo. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

This plan is proposed by Dr. Hunter of York, who advises the exaction of 1s. 6d. out of every pound of clear rental arising from freehold lands, and 1s. in the pound from freehold houses, or the levy of 5s. on every 100l. of the value of all estates. He says,

‘Suppose I am worth 10,000l. in real or nominal money; the interest of that at five per cent. is 500l. The interest of that interest is 25l. which is the sum to be paid to government; an insignificant sum indeed, for the preservation of our lives, laws, liberties, and religion, against the violence of a cruel, rapacious, and perfidious nation, who are not only waging war against property, but against every moral principle belonging to human nature.’
P. 7.

In such a cause, the sum is indeed insignificant; and therefore Mr. Pitt has lately proposed a much more considerable defalcation from the property of the people.

L A W.

A Treatise on the Study of the Law: containing Directions to Students, written by those celebrated Lawyers, Orators, and Statesmen, the Lords Mansfield, Ashburton, and Thurlow, in a Series of Letters to their respective Young Friends; with Notes and Additions, by the Editor. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Sewed. Harrison. 1797.

Directions for the study of a profession so much connected with natural genius as that of the advocate, are of little use, unless they operate on talents which require only the graces of arrangement and dignity of occasion to be exhibited with irresistible effect. A respectable knowledge of our municipal law may, indeed, be acquired by the mere labour of application, where memory performs

its common offices, and perception is not singularly obtuse. It is, however, to the pupil of logic and of eloquence, to the youthful candidate for high forensic distinction, that the precepts in the present publication are particularly interesting. The treatise is chiefly a compilation of the remarks of several eminent legal characters on the study of the law. These observations had before been communicated to the public through other channels; but we consider this collection of them as useful and meritorious. The editor has connected his materials by just reflections: the additions which he has made, evince his judgment; and from those which relate to the practice of the courts, special pleading, and the examination of witnesses, the student may acquire profitable instruction.

A Syllabus, or the Heads of Lectures publicly delivered in the University of Cambridge, by Edward Christian, A. M. Professor of the Laws of England. 8vo. 2s. Butterworth. 1797.

As an annotator on Blackstone's Commentaries, Mr. Christian is known to have performed his task with diligence and accuracy.—As professor of the common law at the university of Cambridge, he has acquired, we believe, a just reputation; and there is no doubt that his elucidation of the topics arranged in the present Syllabus will be interesting and instructive to the members of that learned seminary.

For Malsters, Brewers, and Hop-Planters: all the Excise Laws and adjudged Cases, as they relate to the above Persons, classed under each Stage and Process of Manufacture. So that immediate Reference may be had to the Acts and Laws, as any Case arises. By Robert Kyrle Hutcheson, Esq. Barrister, Bristol. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Butterworth.

Within the compass of a small pamphlet, Mr. Hutcheson has collected and arranged all the legal regulations relative to the persons to whom it is addressed; and the best praise that can be given to such a compilation, is to notice its accuracy.

RELIGION.

An Essay on Universal Redemption; tending to prove that the General Sense of Scripture favours the Opinion of the final Salvation of all Mankind. By the Rev. John Browne, M. A. late of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

The question of universal redemption is at present little agitated. The majority of Christians seem to acquiesce in the doctrine of the eternity of future punishment; and the very respectable persons who have maintained the contrary opinion, unable to resist the enthusiasm of the pulpit, have found few calm inquirers in the closet. The English reader of the scripture sees the word *everlasting* appropriated to the future state of the good and the wicked. Hence

he early imbibes a prejudice in favour of the common notion ; and he cannot without great difficulty be brought to believe, that the translators of the Greek text have led him into an error, and that the word *αιωνος*, which they have translated *everlasting*, has not that extensive import. On this point, with which our author begins, we wish that he had dwelt longer, as the great hinge of the question turns on the meaning of the word. The other arguments, however, in support of final salvation, are brought forward in such a manner as to reflect great credit on his reading and judgement, and to merit the attention of those who are not lost in the prejudice of their sect or party, and who wish to see, in a short compass, the principal points that can be urged in favour of a benevolent, if an erroneous, position. That the scriptures do not maintain the *eternity* of torment to any individual, is our firm opinion : that the ruler of the world will do right, no one can hesitate to assert : but in what manner the virtuous shall be separated from the wicked on the day of the resurrection, will remain to that moment involved in awful obscurity.

The Tocfin ; or an Appeal to Good Sense. By the Rev. L. Dutens, Historiographer to his Majesty, Rector of Elsdon in Northumberland, and F. R. S. Translated from the French, by the Rev. Thomas Falconer. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

This work was first published at Rome in 1769. The purpose of the writer was to warn the public of the atheistical conspiracy which was then in agitation. It is now reprinted in the hope that it may aid the cause of Christianity against the efforts of that philosophy which is hostile to revealed religion. It comprehends the usual arguments in favour of Christianity, enforced by a contrast of its beneficial effects with the gloomy tendencies of Deism and Materialism.

An Appeal to the Nation, on the Subject of Mr. Gilbert Wakefield's Letter to William Wilberforce, Esq. M. P. To which are subjoined Four Sermons, on important Subjects, connected with the Appeal. By the Rev. George Hutton, B. D. &c. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

This appeal is written with a good intention ; but the nation will not have the patience to read it. We used our utmost exertions to get through it. We found paragraphs of several pages in length, periods of a page, the matter also as heavy as the manner ! The nation, perhaps, would sooner give up its right of determining on the merits of Mr. Wilberforce and his antagonist, than listen to this accusation of the one and defence of the other. The sermons are on subjects of great importance ; but they labour under the pressure of the author's style. So strong a soporific has not for a long time fallen into our hands.

A Sermon preached at the Visitation, held in Grantham, May 14, 1798; and dedicated, with due Respect, to the Rev. John Prettyman, D. D. Archdeacon, and to the Clergy of the Hundred of Belkeshloe. By Samuel Hopkinson, B. D. late Fellow of Clare-Hall, and Vicar of Morton. 8vo. 1s. Newbery. 1798.

From 1 John, iv. 1. this author takes occasion to remind his brethren of the necessity of distinguishing that which is most proper and most acceptable to God, of all the various modes in which he has been worshiped. From this he passes to a history of methodism, the merits and defects of which are candidly stated: then is introduced the old story of the living of Aldwincle; and, in the conclusion, the clergy are exhorted to a more serious and striking mode of performing the funeral service. Mr Hopkinson's sentiments towards dissenters are liberal, and his concern for the prosperity of the church is worthy of praise; but his manner of treating the topics of his discourse is rather unconnected, and his style is confused by a mixture of brief quotations from the Bible, Horace, Virgil, Shakspeare, Pope, Junius, Gibbon, Soame Jenyns, and Blair!

A Discourse, delivered in the Church of St. John Baptist, Wakefield, June the 25th, 1798, before the Society of Free and Accepted Masters of the Lodge of Unanimity (No. 202) and a numerous Assembly of Visiting Brethren from the Lodges of Leeds, Sheffield, Halifax, and Huddersfield. By Brother the Rev. Richard Munkhouse, D. D. 8vo. 1s. Cawthorn. 1798.

This sermon contains a more pompous panegyric on the virtues of free-masonry than has been usual on such occasions. The author's zeal carries him great, and sometimes whimsical, lengths in elevating the craft above the rest of mankind. Perhaps, indeed, since the appearance of professor Robison's work, it may be necessary to recover lost ground. Noah's ark, we are told, was the first lodge; and the brethren are invited to 'that heavenly lodge, where the Almighty himself sits as grand master!' Are not such allusions too familiar? Would it not have been better, if the preacher had exhorted his hearers (to use another of his phrases) to *tyle their hearts* against every thing that tends to lessen the respect due to the Almighty?

A Sermon, preached at the Consecration of a Chapel at Cradley by the Right Reverend the Lord Bishop of Worcester, on Wednesday the 12th of September, 1798, by the Rev. John Plumptre, M. A. &c. 8vo. 6d. Robinsons. 1798.

'We let you here into the secret, how truly to appretiate the things of this world;—how to pass with comfort and security through this world; and we conduct you, when this world shall be no more, to a world of happiness and immortality hereafter.'

If the minister had been contented with letting his congregation into the secret, this discourse would, without farther publication, have answered all the good purposes which it is intended to promote.

An Extract from the Journal of Mr. John Nelson, Preacher of the Gospel, &c. Written by Himself. 12mo. 1s. Lee and Hurst. 1798.

From the title of this work, our readers may suppose it calculated for the followers of John Wesley's itinerant converts. From a mason, Mr. Nelson became a preacher, and afterwards, unwillingly, a soldier; but lady Huntingdon procured his discharge. He appears to be a well-meaning enthusiast, with some portion of shrewdness,

M E D I C I N E.

A Treatise on the Causes and Cure of Swelled Legs; on Dropsies, and on the Modes of Retarding the Decay of the Constitution in the Decline of Life; with the Description of a New-Invented Instrument for drawing off the Water, in Female Dropsies, &c. By William Rowley, M. D. &c. To which is added, a Tract on the absolute Necessity of Encouraging the Study of Anatomy, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Newbery: 1796.

The works of Dr. Rowley generally meet with our approbation. We find clearness and simplicity in his views and plans; and, when success does not follow our imitation of them, we are led rather to blame our own want of discrimination or of perseverance, than the author. Perhaps each may be in fault; and the latter, seduced by the simplicity of his objects and his means, may sometimes consider them as more successful than they really are.

The present work contains a valuable account of what relates to the undisputed causes and the most successful remedies of dropsies, unencumbered with doubtful theories or unjust prepossessions. The alterative part of the plan requires a few words of explanation. Dropsies are known not to be often idiopathic diseases: they are most frequently symptoms of diseased viscera. But, when such primary affections are not evident, they are sometimes to be suspected; and, when no decisive symptoms of such affections appear, the obstinacy of the dropsy leads to farther investigation. In these circumstances, our author recommends steel and mercury, seemingly with a view to a diseased liver. The latter we have long since supposed likely to be serviceable, as a general stimulant, to support the due action of the sanguiferous system, or even to induce an increased action. The idea was borrowed from the French practitioners, who alternate or join cordials and evacuates; but, with the latter, as with the former, our success has not hitherto been considerable.

The concluding tract, on the expediency of encouraging the study of anatomy, particularly for the purpose of supplying the army and navy with skilful physicians and surgeons, deserves our praise.

A Treatise on Scrophulous Diseases, shewing the Good Effects of Facilitious Airs: Illustrated with Cases and Observations. By Charles Brown. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Glendinning. 1798.

The diseases of which our author treats, as species or forms of scrofula, are the usual tumours denominated scrophulous, phthisis, tabes scrophulosa, ophthalmia tarfi, hydarthus (white swellings), bronchocele, hydrocephalus, lumbar abscess, and rachitis. These are all, in his opinion, scrophulous disorders, and may be cured by vital air, though he condescends to join other remedies, particularly mercurial purgatives and blisters.

We were not prejudiced in favour of this *young* writer from his denying, with little reserve, what general experience has established, that scrofula is an hereditary disease. We are constrained to remark, that an overweening conceit, and an undisguised contempt of men of learning and abilities, pervade his work. With respect to the diseases in question, we must allow, that, if vital air fails, little time and few advantages will be lost by the delay, as the usual medicines do not often succeed. Mr. Brown, however, ought to reflect that experience has not found vital air useful in phthisis, but with reason prefers its opposite, hydrogen; and that saline applications and sea-bathing have been really advantageous in scrofula, though they contain or communicate no oxygen.

Though Mr. Brown may now, from youth and confidence, be superior to the dull drudgery of accumulating facts, he, like every young author, will find, that, as he advances in years, he increases in doubt, and that the real effect of learning and experience is to suggest timid hesitation and apprehensive diffidence.

Medical Discipline; or, Rules and Regulations for the most Effectual Preservation of Health on Board the Honourable East India Company's Ships. In a Letter addressed to the Hon. the Court of Directors, and published with their Approbation. By Alexander Stewart. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1798.

We are pleased with this little work; and, with a few exceptions, we recommend its regulations to the attention of the court of directors. The exceptions are not important, and need not be particularly noticed, as they scarcely diminish the value of the whole.

B O T A N Y.

Observations on the Structure and Economy of Plants: to which is added, an Analogy between the Animal and Vegetable Kingdom. By Robert Hooper, M. D. F. L. M. S. and Fellow of the Linnean Society. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1798.

The extensive knowledge of the vegetable kingdom, the judicious

selection of instances, and the perspicuous abstract of the principal facts, displayed in this volume, demand our warm approbation. We have a correct view not only of the vegetable œconomy, but of its parallel or contrast with the animal; and the reader will here find the substance of many volumes. We do not enlarge on the observations, because they pretend not to novelty: we strongly recommend them, because they are judicious and instructive.

Synopsis Plantarum Insulis Britannicis indigenarum, complectens Characteres genericos et specificos secundum Systema sexuale distributos, curante J. Symons, A. B. Societ. Lin. Socio.

A Synopsis of British Plants, including the generic and specific Characters, distributed according to the sexual System; edited by J. Symons. 12mo. 5s. Boards. White. 1798.

This is an improved edition of Broughton's Enchiridion. The catalogue is that of the third edition of Withering, with a few additions of plants since discovered. The essential characters are taken from the 13th edition of the System of Nature, the 14th of the System of Vegetables, and the second of the Species Plantarum.

The cryptogamiæ are defective: we find only the ferns, and some miscellaneous genera, chiefly flags. This synopsis, however, may be recommended to our botanical readers as worthy of their attention.

EDUCATION.

Analysis of Education: and Plan of a Seminary for Young Ladies: with the Form of Morning and Evening Prayers used at Sutton House. By Miss Jones. 4to. 1s. Longman. 1798.

Every circumstance of moment, relative to female education, is mentioned in this analysis. There is little, if any, novelty in the performance, though many of the remarks are not injudicious. The prayers, we think, are not well compiled or selected.

The Infant's Friend. Part I. A Spelling Book.—Part II. Reading Lessons. By Mrs. Lovechild. 12mo. 1s. 8d. Newbery. 1797.

It is sufficient to say of these little volumes, that they are well calculated for early instruction.

Parfing Lessons for Young Children: resolved into their Elements, for the Assistance of Parents and Teachers. By Mrs. Lovechild. 12mo. Newbery. 1798.

Parfing Lessons for Elder Pupils.

These productions will be found particularly useful to those parents who are not conversant in the principles of grammar; and their utility will also be felt in diminishing the trouble of others who undertake the task of teaching children.

P O E T R Y.

*Plays and Poems; by Miss Hannah Brand. 8vo. 7s. Boards.
Rivingtons. 1798.*

Of the three plays which appear in this volume, two are altered from the French, and the other was represented some years ago with little success upon one of the London theatres. They contain little that deserves censure, and nothing that we can particularise with praise. The annexed poems are few in number; and the following is a favourable specimen.

‘ ODE TO YOUTH.

‘ Sweet morn of life! All hail, ye hours of ease!

When blooms the cheek with roseate, varying dyes;

When modest grace exerts each power to please,

And streaming lustre radiates in the eyes.

Thy past hours, innocent; thy present, gay;

Thy future, halcyon hope depicts without allay.

Day-spring of life! oh, stay thy fleeting hours!

Thou fairy-reign of ev’ry pleasant thought!

Fancy, to cheer thy path, strews all her flowers,

And in her loom thy plan of years is wrought.

By thee for goodness is each heart caress’d;

The world, untried, is judg’d by that within thy breast.

Sweet state of youth! O harmony of soul!

Now cheerful dawns the day; noon brightly beams;

And evening comes serene, nor cares control;

And night approaches with soft, infant dreams.

Circling, the morn beholds th’ accustom’d round,

Life’s smiling charities awake, and joys abound.

Season of hope, and peace, and virtues, stay!

And for our blis let inexperience rest;

For what can prudent foresight’s beam display?

Why—the barb’d arrow pointed at our breast!—

Teach to suspect the heart we guileless trust,

And, ere we are betray’d, to think a friend unjust.

Thou candid age! with ardent friendship fraught,

That fearless confidence to none denies:

Better sometimes deceiv’d—and, artless, taught

By thy own griefs the wisdom of the wise.

For sad experience, with sorrowing breath,

Sheds, weeping sheds, the pristine roses in hope’s wreath.

Season below'd ! Ah, doom'd to pass away !

With all thy freshness, all thy flatt'ring joys,

With blooming beauty's envy'd, powerful sway,

With laughing hours, the future ne'er annoys.

Ah ! be thou spent as virtue bids to spend !

Then,—though we wish thy stay,—no sighs thy reign shall end.

P. 416.

Matriculation. A Poem. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

We here find a ludicrous subject well treated in Miltonic verse. The author appears to possess genius, which we shall be glad to see employed on better subjects. We select the account of the freshman's initiation.

' Severest trials, conflicts fore sustain'd
with hardihood, and certain dangers met
with ready courage ; fierce resistance made
in honour's nice defence, bespeak the youth
the future college-hero. Thus begins
his strict novitiate, hard to be endur'd.
Behold him bidden to the shatter'd rooms
of some fly lurcher, oft employ'd before
the timid stranger or to hunt, or foil
with bottle frequent-doubling. Thoughtless he
of federated foes, nor dreams the glass
to him o'erflowing each succeeding round
with buzz, or scone or bumper-toast, is pour'd
but with a motive generous as the juice.—
' Too emulous he with veterans dares to cope,
opposing art with courage ; and himself
unpractis'd in deceit, marks not around
each hackney'd stratagem successful. This
feigns illness, and a mingled potion sips.
Another, vig'lant of averted looks,
his glass soft-sliding 'neath the table pours,
and Turkey's richest manufacture, oft
distan'd before, the purple juice distains.
Whilst glass of small dimensions some retain,
or fill unbrimming, — others empty not,
or with a vain pretence, demand excuse.

' Meanwhile the bottle circumambient,
replenish'd oft, he temerarious bibs ;
nor feels with rapid stride the rebel foe
advance t' o'erfet the empire of the brain ;
for wine betrays with confidence of strength.

' Symptoms of inebriety appear.
The party mark his elevated voice,

and rolling eyeballs. Now they charge amain,
fast-vollying; and could he wish retreat
inglorious, that were vain, hemm'd round by foes.

'But he sustains the heat of battle well;
And e'en the veteran toaster half repents
the fierce engagement; for his vacant bin
scarcely sends forth supplies. But still enough
remains; for now at length by wine subdu'd,
(whom will not wine subdue?) the hero falls.' P. 5.

In the tenth page, we are sorry to observe a disgusting description and an indecent simile.

Mary the Ofier-Peeler, a simple but true Story. A Poem. By a Lady. Printed for the Benefit of the distressed Family described in it. 4to. 1s. White. 1798.

We will not criticise a poem published with so benevolent an intention. The following stanzas will show its merit, and explain the nature of those distresses which the purchasers will assist in relieving.

'But of all the afflictions, that prest
Upon Mary, 'twas surely the worst,
To suffer five moons with a breast,
That with anguish was ready to burst.
As a lily oppress'd with night dew,
She hung down her faint drooping head,
Her cheeks wore a deadly pale hue,
That once like twin roses were red.

'Her soul with such patience was fraught,
Not a plaint from her lips ever broke;
Tho' with what she endur'd, you'd have thought,
That silence herself wou'd have spoke.
In her eye I have seen the tears stand,
I have seen them fall fast on the ground;
Whilst she gratefully blest the hard hand,
That was carelessly probing her wound.

'Thro' sorrows, that may not be told,
Ten children to William she bore;
Yet she sometimes in secret made bold
To pray, that she might have no more:
But heaven, as if wrath with her wish,
Soon sent her two babes at a birth,
Which emptied their never-full dish,
And drain'd them of all they were worth.' P. 14.

Ode on the Fluctuations of Civil Society. To which is added, an Ode to Fortune. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1797.

The author of these odes may perhaps write well at a future pe-

riod; but he must learn to write more intelligibly. The following stanza is not easily understood.

‘Oh Albion! isle,
 Prosp’rous that heard’st beneath her tow’ring wing,
 Blaz’ning thy sons, the soul-enkindling Nine;
 Where now the smile,
 Conscious that crown’d the rapture-quiv’ring string
 True to a flight of fame almost divine?
 Expectant of thy final doom,
 Wear’st thou a deep portentous gloom?
 Ev’ry heart, vindictive beating,
 Wait on Phrenzy’s sweeping flight:
 Error’s maze, that mocks retreating,
 Sears the angry balls of fight!
 Valour, inglorious-doom’d, and Vict’ry vain,
 And Honour, grief-inwrapp’d, with moody brow,
 And pressure-fainting Commerce! fear-struck train;
 Freedom! a realm abjur’d by thee, avow.
 Not that a bold ferocious band
 Should tempt defeat on Albion’s strand
 Can give a Briton pause — but lest the fire
 That moulds the British heart, must with thy flame expire!’

r. 9.

N O V E L S.

Rose-mount Castle; or, False Report. A Novel. By M. I. Young.
 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Lane. 1798.

We cannot recommend this work either for entertainment or instruction. It is almost destitute of fable or of any excitement to curiosity, if we except the introduction of a gang of Irish *defenders*, who rob and murder in a very *sentimental* style, and one of whom becomes afterwards a personage of high consequence in the groupe of lords and dukes, having relinquished his *youthful errors*. Many characters are introduced, and coupled in love-matches, all which prove abundantly prosperous; but there are no traits in their history so interesting as to compensate their vapid and common-place conversation, which occupies the greater part of the work.

Ella; or, He's always in the Way. By Maria Hunter, Authoress of Fitzroy. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Lane. 1798.

The plan of this novel has little regularity. It seems to have been intended only as a vehicle for the introduction of characters from what the authoress calls *nature*. Some of these, as well as the incidents, are delineated with the pen of a caricaturist; and, with the exception of a few just though trite reflections on education and seduction, the moral tendency of the work is not very obvious. The character of one of the managers of our theatres is, we hope, a gross misrepresentation.

The Heir of Montague. A Novel. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards.
Lane. 1798.

Although the characters in this novel are copies, and the incidents are of the common kind, it may be considered as usefully tending to expose the errors of youthful indiscretion and vulgar prejudices. Much of this, as of most modern novels, is thrown into the form of dialogue, probably from a supposition that it is easy to write in that way; but this, we are sorry to add, has been seldom justified by the specimens which have fallen in our way.

Octavia. By Anna Maria Porter. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards.
Longman. 1798.

There is a lamentable affectation in the language of this novel; witness this description of the heroine.

‘Octavia the youngest was as beautiful as she was young: the graces of her figure dwelt not so much on the lovely roundness of her limbs, or the elegance of her height, as on the variety of its air, and the expression of its attitudes: every motion of her graceful neck and white arms were full of eloquence. Her form owned more softness than dignity, more winningness than attraction; and possessed also an air so variable, and yet so uniformly lovely, that the more she was seen, the more she was admired. Air is often the only source of charm in form; for without it the finest limbs, the truest features, are insipid and powerless: fashion and symmetry may make a figure correct; but it is like the copy of a fine picture, where every object is exactly resembled, but in which the magic, the illusive touch of the master, is not discernible. Octavia’s figure defined air in every movement: yet this air was not one fixed character; it shifted like her animated mind, from grave to gay, from simplicity to elevation; from the grace of a goddess, and the witcheries of fashion, to the retiring sweetness of an Arcadian girl: but in all its changes it was irresistible; and Octavia was lovely.’ Vol. i. p. 8.

If the authoress however wishes to be elegant in her own language, she does not seem to think it necessary that the conversation of her characters should be so.

The poetry contained in these volumes, though sometimes very incorrect, is superior to the prose.

‘Ah! native stream, dear scene of former hours,
The thoughtless child, who lately on thy banks
Sang cheerily, returns most alter’d now—
For infancy is gone, and life’s fair flowers
Have long since shewn those thorns their blooms conceal’d.
Ah! as I pass amid these thick trees’ ranks,
Listing the slow sound of each yellowing bough,
I sigh most heavily; recalling days

Long past, but happy; those, when every field,
 If it but yielded bells, dispensed delight;
 When light of heart, with eager steps I flew
 (While yet the green lanes, wet with morning dew,
 Sparkled beneath the sun) to scent the bloom
 Of bordering hedges where the hawthorn grew,
 To pluck the luscious honeysuckle's sprays,
 And gather in my lap the bind-with white.
 Then, as I hurried on, my little breast
 Beating with blameless joy, the sky-lark's note
 Rising in air, still swelling, tho' remote,
 Sudden arrested me, and I would stand,
 (The gay weeds falling from my slacken'd hand,)
 To watch its track amongst the clouds, and hear
 Its thrilling song tremble amid the light:
 That feeling was most sweet, and fancy blest
 Each rosy cheek's swift swelling blissful tear.' Vol. iii. p. 203.

Miss Porter may with care become respectable as a poetess; but we would advise her to relinquish the task of writing novels.

George Barnwell. *A Novel.* By T. S. Surr, *Author of Consequences, a Novel; and Christ's Hospital, a Poem.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Symonds. 1798.

' Custom has long established the right of dramatists to a property in the plots and characters of novelists; and recent instances might be adduced of novels and romances, which were scarcely suffered to be read, ere they were converted into dramas.

' The equal right of the novelist to similar trespasses upon dramatic ground cannot be contested; whether the exercise of that right, in the present instance, will be as favourably received by the public, their voice can alone determine.' Vol. i. p. v.

Mr. Surr's novel does not display excellence of the first class; but in a circulating library it will be very respectable. The character of Mental, which seems to have been suggested by the Albany of miss Burney's Cecilia, is not consistently preserved: of this fault, the majority of those who read novels will not be sensible; and, for the whole of its sentiments and tendency, no work can be more unexceptionable than the present.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

British Public Characters of 1798. 8vo. 8s. 6d. Boards. Phillips. 1798.

Anonymous memoirs of living characters are generally deficient both in authority of anecdote and the dignity of biography. These characters are drawn by various pens: and, however doubtful may be the credit due to the materials of the work, it certainly disco-

vers respectable *traits* of discrimination, and has the merit of being uncontaminated by the virulence of party spirit.

Tres Tyrusve mihi nullo discrimine agetur,
seems to be the motto of those by whom the lives are written.

We select a part of the biographical sketch of the present chancellor of Ireland—a character conspicuous in politics, but with whose progress in public life our readers are perhaps less acquainted than with that of many other persons noticed in the work.

‘Whether we consider the importance resulting from official situation, or that which great activity, considerable talents, and indefatigable zeal, always attach to their possessor, this nobleman is certainly the first man in the Irish administration. Whatever may be the fate of that unhappy country, so far as that fate is influenced by the present contest, it may be fairly attributed to his wisdom or to his weakness, to his firmness or to his folly.’

Lord Clare, although now occupying the highest law-office in Ireland, and possessing almost unlimited influence in its councils, cannot boast a long line of noble ancestors.

‘He is removed but two degrees from a man in the humblest walk of society—a catholic peasant—whose life was distinguished only by a gradual transition from extreme poverty to an honourable competency, and that too acquired by useful industry.’

P. 374.

‘He was entered at an early age a student of the university of Dublin, where he was contemporary with some of the most celebrated men who have distinguished themselves in all the recent and important transactions that have occurred in Ireland; such as the late Mr. Flood, Mr. Grattan, Mr. Foster, the present speaker of the Irish commons, &c. He is yet remembered by some of the old members of that seminary, on account of the ability and industry which even then marked his character.’

‘Having completed his course of collegiate studies, and kept his terms at the Temple, he was at length called to the Irish bar, with advantages possessed by few at the outset of life, and these were supported by a high character, and a fortune which, even independent of any increase from the success of forensic labours, secured to him something infinitely beyond a competence. Affluence, however, did not produce in Mr. Fitzgibbon what is too commonly its effect on the youthful mind—an indolent apathy. His assiduity in professional pursuits was not exceeded by any of his rivals at the bar; and though there was no man who drank more deeply of the cup of pleasure, yet few toiled through more business, or in the discharge of it displayed more of that accuracy of knowledge which is the result only of attentive industry.’

‘It was by the observance of a rule of life which none but strong minds have ever prescribed to themselves, namely, “to sus-

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fer no portion of time to pass without filling it either with business or with pleasure," that Mr. F. was enabled to unite those generally incompatible pursuits. With such application, and with talents certainly above the common level, though perhaps far below that at which his friends would place them, he soon rose to eminence.

"In the house of commons, of which he became a member shortly after his call to the bar, by the operation of this principle, aided by a kind of eloquence, which, though it was neither very brilliant nor very persuasive, yet being accompanied by a certain air of confident superiority, a considerable effect was produced; and he was soon esteemed one of the most efficient supporters of the party he espoused.

"Without affecting popularity at any time, he launched into political life, uninvited and unbought, the partisan of the court, and the professed contemner of the *profanum vulgus*: in this sentiment he has been wonderfully consistent. From his first entrance he has not, in one single instance, started from the track before him. His conduct has been marked by an unvaried and uniform support of the British cabinet, and an avowed, perhaps a revolting contempt, for the principles, motives, and objects, of what has been called the popular party." p. 375.

"When Mr. Scott was appointed chief justice of the King's Bench in Ireland, Mr. Fitzgibbon succeeded him as attorney-general. No man was ever better fitted for the office. His firmness, his confidence in his own powers, and the bold tone with which he hurled defiance at his parliamentary opponents, on every question connected with legal or constitutional knowledge, often appalled the minor members of opposition, and sometimes kept even their chiefs at bay. These qualities, however, did not always constitute a sure defence. The repulse which on one memorable evening of debate he experienced on the part of the present lord, then Mr. O'Neil, of Shane's castle, whose manly and honest mind caught fire at the haughty and dictatorial language with which the attorney-general had dared to address him, is remembered by those who were then conversant in the politics of the day, and probably will not soon be forgotten." p. 378.

"Hitherto Mr. F. had acted with an administration which possessed both the power and the will to reward his exertions. When the event of the king's illness, in 1789, unhinged the Irish government, he stood in different circumstances. On that occasion, a majority of the parliament, among whom were many of the oldest servants of the crown, declared for the right of Ireland, as an independent country, to choose its own regent. The British cabinet controverted that right, and insisted that the regent chosen by the British parliament should be the regent for both countries. Mr. F.

though no longer supported by a majority, remained firm to his English friends, and resisted, with his wonted boldness, not only the voice of the people, but what was of more immediate concern, a vast parliamentary majority. The unexpected recovery of his majesty, to Mr. F. certainly an happy event, rewarded his superior wisdom, or his greater foresight; for on lord Lifford's death he was created a baron, and appointed chancellor: it is also not a little memorable, that he is the first Irishman who has filled that important office.

' So far as respects justice, the country has had no reason to lament his appointment, for his activity and dispatch have made chancery-suits almost cease to be an inheritance. He has banished chicanery and unnecessary delay from his court; and though his decrees may sometimes be blamed as premature, the paucity of appeals seems to augur, that all complaint on this score is groundless.

' Since his elevation to the bench and the peerage, he has had repeated opportunities of displaying his former spirit, and expressing, with even more effect than before, his detestation of popular claims, and particularly that of reform. He has shewn an equal abhorrence of the catholic pretensions to share in the privileges of the constitution. Of their claim to the representative franchise, it is known that he was the decided enemy; and though by the paternal regard of his majesty, and the prudence of the British cabinet, the concession of that privilege was recommended to the Irish legislature, and adopted in consequence of that recommendation, yet his opinion remained unchanged. With respect to subsequent claims, the British ministry have paid more attention to his advice.' p. 380.

The volume is accompanied with an etching of heads; but it is miserably executed.

Critical, Poetical, and Dramatic Works. By John Penn, Esq. Vol. II*. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Hatchard. 1798.

The poetical part of this volume consists of the Art of English Poetry; a piece written in imitation of Horace. Like all Mr. Penn's poetry, this is not above mediocrity. Our specimen will show it to be tame and feeble.

' What measure the relation needs
Of heaven's or earth's heroic deeds,
Milton points out, unless I err;
Though some a different verse prefer.
But less do judges disagree
On that which sooths in elegy.
A stanza that four equal lines,
Framed of five feet, distinctly joins,
With rhymes alternate, pleases most.
Critics that would its fitness boast
For other strains, through the repute
Of bards relinquish'd their dispute.

* For an Account of the first Vol. see Vol. XXIII. New Arr. p. 118.

Pope well, for satire, spleen alarm'd
 With his own iron couplets arm'd;
 Which verse the dramachose to quit,
 Experience proving it unfit.
 To enforce belief of feign'd distress;
 And still to copy manners less;
 That, all their nicer grace to save,
 Exactest imitation crave.
 To sing of peaceful deeds, or one
 In battle brave as Ammon's son;
 Or, to the skies, in lasting lays,
 The passions, virtues, arts, to raise;
 Or joys with which the bosom glow'd
 Of frolic youth, has waked the ode. p. 55.

The criticisms are contained in the preface and notes. They are too diffuse; and Mr. Penn attributes, to his own opinions respecting tragedy, an importance which they do not possess. The remainder of the volume consists of *Samson Agonistes*, the *Silent Woman*, and Voltaire's *Semiramis*, reduced according to Mr. Penn's dramatic principles. We miss many beauties, and perceive little improvement.

Porto Bello: or, a Plan for the Improvement of the Port and City of London. Illustrated by Plates. By Sir Frederick Morton Eden, Bart. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. White. 1798.

Several plans have been lately proposed for the improvement of the port and various streets of London. The patriotic baronet, who has paid so much attention to the concerns of the poor of this kingdom, is desirous of augmenting the accommodations and the beauty of the metropolis; and, as the independence of his situation exempts him from the prejudices which wharfingers, merchants, aldermen, *et hoc genus omne*, feel on such a subject, he has suggested various hints worthy of their consideration. He recommends, among other points, the demolition of London-bridge, and the erection of another of iron, sufficiently elevated to admit the passage of ships of the burthen of 200 tons. A magnificent pile of buildings for warehouses, and wet docks in Wapping, are parts of his scheme. It is also proposed, that an embankment shall take place from Scotland-yard to Blackfriars'-bridge, by which a spacious street will be obtained, and a commodious passage from the city to Westminster; and this street is to be continued from Blackfriars'-bridge to St. Paul's church. Other improvements are suggested, which might be easily carried into execution, if private interest did not contend so strongly against public good: and our author increases this inconvenience, by endeavouring to augment rather than to diminish the consequence of the corporation of London. When we reflect on the magnitude of the suburbs of London, compared with the mere city, we see no reason for increasing

the consequence of this small part, by the diminution of that of the suburbians. Much may be done to improve the metropolis; but its inhabitants must first learn to distinguish rightly between the glory or folly of war, and the effects of industry employed for the preservation, not the destruction, of mankind.

A Letter addressed to the Right Honorable Lord Chief Justice Kenyon, complaining of Injustice, and pointing out the Danger to Society from Perjury, and the Facility with which the loose and equivocal Testimony of Servants may destroy the Peace of private Families. By A. Hook, Esq. 4to. 1s. Murray and Highley. 1798.

The legal history of the cause in which major Hook is concerned, is briefly this. In the year 1793, captain Campbell sued that gentleman in the court of King's-bench for damages, on a charge of adultery with Mrs. Campbell; and the jury declared against the defendant. Encouraged by this verdict, the accuser applied to the ecclesiastical court for a divorce *à mensâ et thoro*; and the person who officiated for Dr. Harris as commissary of Surry, pronounced a sentence of that nature, after a due investigation of the case. An appeal was made to the court of arches; and, when the judge had affirmed the sentence, the cause was transferred, by a second appeal, to the court of delegates, composed both of professors of the common law and civilians. By this court the cause was finally determined against Mrs. Campbell and Mr. Hook.

Notwithstanding this concurrence of decision, the major strongly asserts his innocence; imputes perjury to those witnesses whose testimony induced the different courts to consider him as guilty; and, having discussed the particulars of the case, expresses his hope, that lord Kenyon will 'suggest a suitable and adequate remedy' to the evil of which he complains; an evil which, he thinks, loudly calls for the interposition of the legislature.

The Republican Judge: or the American Liberty of the Press, as exhibited, explained, and exposed, in the base and partial Prosecution of William Cobbett, for a pretended Libel against the King of Spain and his Ambassador, before the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania. With an Address to the People of England. By Peter Porcupine. 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1798.

Highly exasperated at the prosecution which was commenced against him, Peter vehemently attacks M^r Kean, the chief justice of Pennsylvania, for his conduct on the occasion. The libel published by the bold Anti-Gallican represented his catholic majesty as 'destitute not only of the dignity of a king, but of the common virtues of a man,' and as 'the supple tool of the most nefarious politics' of the French; and it contained other reflexions, not the most decent or liberal. The grand jury, however, returned the bill *ignoramus*.—The judge is vilified in the present pamphlet, both with regard to his public and his private character; and other persons are favoured with a share of abuse. The American press is

affirmed to be less free than that of Great-Britain; and, in the address to our countrymen, the opinion which ascribes to the Trans-Atlantic republicans a greater portion of liberty and happiness than the inhabitants of this island enjoy, is controverted as a dangerous notion, and stigmatised as false.

Some Account of the early Years of Buonaparte, at the Military School of Brienne; and of his Conduct at the Commencement of the French Revolution. By Mr. C. H. one of his School-Fellows. 8vo. 2s. Hookham and Carpenter.

It is unquestionably an object of curiosity to trace back the hero to his boyish days. Most of the characters which have astonished the world by their genius or bravery, have been found to give some early promise of fame. The particulars, however, afforded by Mr. C. H. are scanty. It appears that Buonaparte was reserved and insocial, blunt in his manners, bold, enterprising, and even ferocious; and that he gave no earnest of that 'moderation towards his enemies' for which he is here celebrated. The author is apparently charmed with his subject — perhaps more than his readers will be, when they balance the victories in Italy with the quackery of the general in Egypt.

The Commentary of Hierocles upon the Golden Verses of the Pythagoreans; now first translated into English from an accurate Edition of the Greek Original, published in London, in the Year 1742, by the learned Dr. Warren, accompanied with Notes and Illustrations, by William Rayner, A. B. Vicar of Calthorpe. 8vo. 4s. Longman.

Those who are fond of the more intelligible Platonic morality, may peruse with pleasure the Commentary of Hierocles. From the notes it appears, that Mr. Rayner has adopted the belief of a pre-existent state. A translation of Theophrastus is annexed.

Anecdotes Historical and Literary; or a Miscellaneous Selection of curious and striking Passages, from eminent Modern Authors. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

This collector professes, that his object is to amuse those readers who are neither profound in their inquiries, nor fastidious in their criticisms. Before a court of this description, he may probably be acquitted. Our verdict is, that he is guilty of collecting a certain quantity of matter without taste or judgement; that some of it is indecent, much is vulgar and useless; and that, upon the whole, the compilation is the worst of the kind that has been presented since it became a fashion to employ scissors, and paste or wafers, rather than pen and ink, in the manufacture of books.

A short Argument on the Administration of Oaths, endeavouring to shew that it is an essential and unalienable Prerogative of the Sovereignty. 8vo. 6d. Becket.

This argument glances at the seditious societies in which oaths

have been administered to the members. The conclusion is, that the legislature should pointedly and explicitly assert its right, declare the administration of all oaths to be an inherent, inalienable prerogative of the sovereignty, by which alone a subordinate power of that kind can be delegated, and annex punishment to every exercise of this solemn and dangerous power by persons not duly authorised. But it may be doubted whether an act of parliament for those purposes would prevent the unlawful administration of oaths in secret conspiracies. Men who associate to do that which is unlawful will not suffer such a statute to deter them from taking an oath, as a mutual bond or pledge, or word of honour. An oath, however, is a most serious obligation, in whatever manner it may be administered, because it lies rather between God and man, than between one man and another; and he who takes it ought to consider that he must answer at the bar of divine justice, if he should escape that of the lower world.

The Fashionable Cypriat: in a Series of elegant and interesting Letters, with correlative Anecdotes of the most distinguished Characters in Great Britain and Ireland. Part I. 12mo. 4s. Bull. 1798.

To persons of a certain class, anecdotes and memoirs of the frail fair afford a high gratification. We do not approve their taste, or admit the moral motives of the author: but we shall pass no other censure on his letters than that they are neither 'elegant' nor 'interesting' to readers of sense and virtue.

A Translation of the Passages from Greek, Latin, Italian, and French Writers, quoted in the Prefaces and Notes to the Pursuits of Literature; a Poem, in Four Dialogues. To which is prefixed, a Prefatory Epistle, intended as a General Vindication of the Pursuits of Literature, from various Remarks which have been made upon that work. By the Translator. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Becket. 1798.

This publication is attributed to the author of the Pursuits of Literature himself, and apparently with good reason. We select from the prefatory epistle a passage which, though some may think it very fine, will appear very ridiculous to those who recollect that it is intended to describe the writer of a satire so dull and unpoetical.

'From his very childhood he grew up in silence and in solitude; neither seduced, nor diverted from his purpose; in a quiet independence; not embarrassed by difficulty, or depressed by neglect; constant in thought; waiting patiently for his hour, of the world not unknowing, though unknown. Much and often would he muse on other times; and dwell with the bards and sages, whose names are written in the books of fame and eternity. His studies and his meditations were an habitual poetry. To those who ob-

sewed the mantle he would sometimes wear in his youth, it seemed

Inwrought with figures dim, and on the edge

Like to that sanguine flower, inscribed with woe.

But he never blamed his fate. Most of all, he revered the lyre; and sought out those who could strike the strings most cunningly and sweetly. One such he found. He looked abroad through all the realms of nature; through her scenes of majesty, of softness, or of terror; the wilds of solitude, the stormy promontory, the cultivated prospect, the expanse of forests, the living lake, the torrent, or the cataract. By the shores of the interminable ocean, on the cliffs, and on the ragged rocks, he found and felt the power of inspiration. But still his fancy wandered chiefly in the mild retreats of the elder poetry, the banks of Mæander, and the Mincio. The scenes of ancient Greece and Latium were the hermit haunts of his imagination. In the valley of Tempe, by the hill of Hymettus, and the grove of Plato, he first heard, and learned

The secret power

Of harmony, in tones and numbers hit

By voice, or hand; and various measur'd verse,

Æolian charms, and Dorian lyric odes,

And his, who gave them breath, but higher sung.

Sometimes reclined on the verge of Castalia, he would drink of the original fountain, whose murmurs were familiar to him. Last of all, in the moments of divine and of serene delight, he would ascend the chariot of the Muses, and fix his eye, but not without superior guidance, upon the central heaven. r. lvii.

Impartial Strictures on the Poem called "The Pursuits of Literature:" and particularly a Vindication of the Romance of "The Monk." 8vo. 3s. Bell. 1798.

A pamphlet written with some learning and some ability.

Remarks on the Pursuits of Literature, in a Letter to the Author. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivington. 1798.

A Letter to the Author of a Pamphlet, entitled "Remarks on the Pursuits of Literature, in a Letter to the Author, dated Cambridge May 1, 1798." Containing Observations on "The Remarks." By a Country Gentleman, formerly of the University of Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Lee and Hurst. 1798.

These pamphlets occupy as much room as they deserve with their titles.

ANSWER TO A CORRESPONDENT.

Mr. Cook's eagerness to see an account of the work which he mentions, might have been more decisively manifested by the transmission of a copy of it.

A P P E N D I X

TO THE

TWENTY-FOURTH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Historisch-Statistisches Gemälde des Russischen Reichs, am Ende des achtzehnten Jahrhunderts, und unter der Regierung Katharina der Zweyten, von Heinrich Storck. Riga. 1797.

An Historico-Statistic Picture of the Russian Empire, at the Close of the eighteenth Century, and under the Government of Catharine II. by Henry Storck. 2 Vols. 8vo. with coloured Maps. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Imported by Fischer.

THE great extent of the Russian empire, the multiplicity of nations subject to one government, the variety of their languages, the diversity of their manners, and the despotism by which they are enslaved, render the objects in this work interesting to the statesman, the philosopher, and the philanthropist. Our recent connexions also with this colossal state naturally call our attention to a part of the globe, whence, in the present confusion of European politics, order is expected to be established, religion supported, regular government restored; and, if the will of a despot, aided by brutal force, can produce these wonderful effects, the present work gives us sufficient proofs, that the expectations of some politicians are not built entirely upon a sandy foundation. The arts, indeed, during this century, have been making great progress in the Russian dominions: science flourishes in the capital, and in some other towns; but the people are slaves, and the great body of subjects in this vast empire are immersed in sloth, ignorance, and superstition.

APP. VOL. XXIV. NEW ARR. L 1

Our author, whose views are patriotic, and who retains an enthusiastic attachment to the memory of his late sovereign, has formed the most agreeable picture that he could compose from the materials before him. The great objects of admiration he presents in the fore-ground, and shades off with skill the rough and unhewn masses which might have disfigured his picture. The variety of objects which such a field opened to him, he has grouped in the most judicious manner; and, without wounding the prejudices of the Russian, his description is sufficient to satisfy the curiosity of the Englishman. On the order preserved through the whole, we can scarcely bestow too much praise: in the investigation of every subject no pains have been spared; and the performance may be recommended as a model to statistie writers.

The general heads are four; the origin of the nations under the Russian sway; their *natural*, their *civil*, and their *moral* state. In the first part, great discrimination is displayed in classing the various nations of this empire, tracing them to their sources, marking their characteristic differences, and pointing out the changes which at different times have taken place in their relation to each other.

As a specimen of M. Storck's style and manner, we shall select his account of one horde not so distinguished by its numbers or its strength, as by the nature of its constitution. This horde separated itself from its former neighbours, and took up its abode chiefly near the falls of the Dnieper.

'The constitution of this little military tribe was one of the most remarkable in the world. War was the end of the social union formed by its members, their first profession, and their favourite employment. Agriculture and the breeding of cattle they neglected; hunting and fishing they regarded only as amusements. To live unmarried was a maxim of their constitution; but, to satisfy the demands of nature, they frequently carried off the wives of their neighbours, whom, however, they were obliged to keep at a distance from Setscha, their principal residence. To maintain their population, they not only stole children wherever they could find them, but received criminals and vagabonds from all quarters. Almost every European language was spoken amongst them. Their constitution was entirely democratical; each Cofack enjoyed equal rights. Their ataman, or chief, was annually elected. Every citizen of their republic had equal pretensions to the highest office. They had no written laws; but they had customs of equal value, by which crimes were punished with great

firmness and impartiality. A Cofack who murdered his fellow-citizen was buried alive with him: a thief was obliged to stand in the pillory for three days; and, not infrequently, an offender of this description was flogged to death. The greater part of the tribe belonged to the Greek church; but no regard was paid to differences of faith. The moral character of the people corresponded with their mode of life and their constitution: they had all the virtues and all the vices of a free people living by war and plunder. They were brave and ferocious, hospitable and rapacious, active and temperate in their expeditions, indolent and gluttonous at home. The number of warriors among them sometimes amounted to forty thousand.

'The *sovereignty* over these Cofacks (if the relation of such a tribe at one time to the Poles, at another to the Tartars, to the Turks, and to the Russians, may be called by that term) was frequently changing. Peter the Great destroyed Setfcha, when they took part in the insurrection of the hetman Mazeppa: they collected themselves, however, under the protection of the khan of the Crimea, and, in 1737, were again received as vassals of Russia. A council was appointed to superintend their affairs; but it had little or no influence on their interior constitution. Their only obligation to the empire was to appear upon call in the field, in which case they were to receive the usual allowance of the Cofacks. In the war between the Russians and Turks, ending in 1774, they not only betrayed their perfidy on various occasions, but manifested their intentions of regaining their full independence. When the re-conquered countries on the Dnieper, called New Servia, and since making part of New Russia, were to be colonised, they declared this district their property, took away the rights of the new comers, and, partly by fraud, partly by force, reduced to subjection fifty thousand Russians. This insurrection, their unmarried and predatory mode of life, their total neglect of agriculture in a fruitful country, and their continual opposition to all attempts for bringing them into a better state, at length determined the empress, in 1775, to annihilate this little Spartan government. A body of Russian troops surrounded and disarmed them. It was permitted to them, by a manifesto, either to choose, as useful subjects, a civilised mode of life, or to retire into another country. A part of their number remained, and accepted civil employments; others joined the Turks and the Tartars, or wandered in solitude on the Russian confines. The country which they had possessed was placed under the government of New Russia, and now belongs to the province of Jekacerinosslaw.'

The constant use of the bath is an important feature in the Russian character; and our author's remarks on that practice deserve attention.

'The baths, that honourable relique of antiquity, are now principally used in the east, where they are subservient to health and luxury, or are perpetuated by religion. In Europe, within a few centuries, they have been almost lost, though in some respects even here they were connected with religion. Russia and Hungary are at present the only countries in the world where bathing is practised after the manner of the ancients. In Russia the bath is so material a part of domestic life, that it is used at all ages and in all circumstances, by little children, by women after childbirth, in all diseases, before and after a journey, after hard work, &c. By the common people the bath is deemed so necessary, that, in the best state of health, they use it very frequently. Persons in moderate circumstances, and the rich, usually build in their houses vapour-baths on the common plan, though among these classes they are declining in use, as foreign manners prevail.

'Baths have been in immemorial use among the Russians. Nestor, in the eleventh century, describes them exactly as they are at present. With the ancients the baths were open buildings, immediately under the care of the state. From necessity and cleanliness they derived their origin: architecture afterwards adorned them with its elegance; and, lastly, luxury and voluptuousness so changed their original design, that they became offensive to the morality of philosophers. Alexander was astonished at the magnificence of the baths in Persia. At Rome, under the Cæsars, were above 870 such buildings, which were masterpieces of splendour and taste, till it was their fate to be destroyed by the Goths, or to be converted into churches by the bishops. Hungary is now the only country in which the baths retain the ancient Roman magnificence: in Russia they still exhibit that simplicity, which their purpose and designation seem to require.

'Here the common baths are in mean wooden houses, near a stream. In the bath-room is a large arched stove, and, when it is heated, the stones become red: in it is fixed a caldron. Round the room are three rows of benches, one above the other: there is little light in the apartment, as there are only a few openings to let out the vapour. The necessary cold water is conveyed through the room in open pipes. Some baths have an adjoining room for dressing and undressing; but in general this is done in an open court, furnished with benches.

‘ The great majority of baths are as we have here described them. Where wood is scarce, they sometimes consist of miserable mud-huts, buried in the ground by the side of a river. In the houses of the rich, and the palaces of the great, their construction is nearly the same; but they are much more magnificent.

‘ The heat in the bathing-room is generally from 32 to 40 degrees on Reaumur's scale; and it is greatly increased every five minutes by the water thrown on the red-hot stones before-mentioned. Sometimes, on the highest bench, it is as high as 44 degrees. The bathers place themselves entirely naked on one of the benches, and perspire, more or less, according to the degree of heat in the atmosphere in which they are. With a view of opening their pores, they are rubbed, or gently whipped with birchen twigs. After a time they remove from their bench and wash themselves; and, in general, a whole pail of water is at last poured upon their heads. Many people, on quitting the bathing-room, throw themselves into the next stream, or roll themselves, when the thermometer is at 10 or 12 degrees, in the snow.

‘ The Russian baths are not Roman *tepidaria* or *caldaria* of a moderate heat, but violent perspiration baths—such as throw a person, not accustomed to them, into an actual though soft and almost voluptuous swoon. They are, indeed, vapour-baths; and, in this respect, they differ from the baths of antiquity, and from those of the modern eastern nations: in this is their real preference, which makes them beneficial in many cases, where heated water would be either useless or pernicious. They are also baths of health, which cleanliness requires to assist perspiration, and to make the skin smooth; not baths of mere pleasure, like those of the Greeks and Romans. Here the inventions of effeminacy and luxury have no place. Of ointments after bathing (which in Rome were so eagerly desired, that the emperors bestowed oil on the people) the Russian knows nothing. Instead of oiling himself, he hardens his body against the inclemency of the climate, and prepares for every change of weather, by a sudden transition from heat to cold; a transition which, from idle prejudice alone, is thought unnatural and dangerous.

‘ It cannot be doubted that the Russians, though their climate, food, and mode of life, may have some effect, are indebted to these baths for the great age to which they live, for their sound state of health, the slowness of their susceptibility of disease, and the happiness of their natural existence. The great Bacon, and other penetrating observers of men and nature, lament, not without reason, that these

baths are out of use among modern European nations, and pray for their return to every town and village. Indeed, when we reflect how early, and with what happy consequences, the ancient physicians introduced this practice recommended by Nature herself, and remember that Rome had no physicians but baths for five hundred years, and that at present some nations heal their diseases by baths, we must consider the disuse of them as the epoch of a great revolution, which the natural state of the human race has undergone in our part of the world.

‘Insensible perspiration, the most important of all secretions, must succeed incomparably better in a body kept continually smooth by bathing. A multitude of impurities, the seeds of tedious and dangerous disorders, are early removed, before they can poison the blood and the juices. The baths are of particular service in cutaneous diseases, and consequently in the small pox; and if this dreadful malady is less dangerous in Russia than in other countries, no other reason can probably be assigned than the use of the vapour-bath.’

Under a government so despotic as that of Russia, our sportsmen will be surprised to hear that the game-laws are not so strict as those of England, and that even the slavish peasant is permitted to do what would be considered as a great offence in an English farmer.

‘Through the whole extent of the empire, game is, in a great measure, open; it belongs, indeed, to the proprietor of the land; but almost every landlord gives his peasants the permission of sporting. Even in Livland (Livonia), where the landholders are Germans, and game begins to be scarce, no one is offended, if a sportsman goes over several estates with his friends, servants, and dogs, without requesting permission from the proprietors. Some landlords, indeed, will not allow their peasants to shoot; but this prohibition produces the contrary effect, and the injury done secretly is so much the greater.’

Of our author’s remarks on agriculture, we can only give the conclusion. The great obstacle to a flourishing state of cultivation is the slavery of the peasants; and the change of their condition must, in so extensive an empire, require exertions which can hardly be expected under a despotic sway.

‘We have (he says) taken notice of the most common defects and obstructions, which check agriculture in Russia. We have ventured also to propose some means of supplying the defects, and removing or weakening the obstructions,

If it is the general lot of projects that they are well meant but are seldom practicable, it cannot be alleged against ours, that they stand on ideal grounds. Convinced that the total abolition of slavery is yet wound up with insuperable difficulties, and that so beneficial a reform is not to be produced by law and power, so much as by a change in thinking, and by greater cultivation of the mind, we have laid our foundation in the present state of the people, and endeavoured only to bring this important truth into notice, that to alleviate moderately the grievances of the peasant, and to secure him against arbitrary power, are the best means of giving vigour to agriculture. What statesman, or what really enlightened landlord, will doubt or dispute the truth and importance of this proposition? And is it too much to hope, that this salutary change should take place in the age of Catharine the Second, in an age which, by its wisdom and cultivation, forms the most brilliant epoch in the Russian history, and is particularly celebrated for its improvements in agriculture?

The slavery of the peasants cannot, perhaps, be removed without injury to the constitution of Russia. The admission of so great a body of men to the common rights of humanity, would necessarily diminish the despotism of the sovereign: as one extreme would be raised in society, the other would be in some degree lowered; and it may justly be doubted, whether the change could be effected without a convulsion in the empire.

We now quit with reluctance this well-informed and entertaining writer, whose methodical arrangement and accuracy of description have enabled us to travel with ease and pleasure through this enormous empire. Whether we wished to trace the origin of each people, to mark the causes of the difference of manners in various parts of the empire, to learn the state of the population and the variety of the produce of different soils, to explore the wonders of the Siberian mountains, to wander with the Kamtschadal or Samojed over the snowy plains by the frozen sea, or contrast them with the Circassian on the heights of Caucasus, we every where found instruction united with entertainment, and statistics blended with real patriotism. A translation of this performance, we understand, has been undertaken by a person well acquainted with Russia, and with the language in which the work is written; and we trust that it will prove an acceptable present to the English reader,

Gemählde von St. Petersburg von Heinrich Storck. Riga.
View of Petersburg. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. boards. Imported
 by Escher.

THIS is a full, and frequently an animated, description of the institutions and buildings of Petersburg, and of the manners and customs of the inhabitants. Much information has been given on these points by British travellers; but the time and study employed upon this work by one so well qualified to investigate every part of the subject, must give it a superiority over the accounts of those writers.

On the mode of life and the hospitality of the Petersburgers, our author's remarks are very interesting; and we might contrast the following statement of the expence of servants in the capital of Russia, with what we have learned of the expence of the same service in North America,

‘ Servants in Petersburg form one of the most expensive articles for all who are not proprietors of land. The custom of keeping many servants has become general in this city. In the houses of the nobility, where the servants are slaves, their number exceeds all belief. This example, on the one hand, excites imitation in the middle ranks, and, on the other, produces indolence in the common people. Even the ordinary business of the house, for which one female servant in Germany would be sufficient, is here thought to require at least three men. Women are never employed on any occasion which requires them to appear in the drawing-room, or to go into the streets; their departments are the kitchen, the wash-house, and the nursery. Every other service is performed by men. For almost every employment one is obliged to keep a man; and the demands of these servants are exorbitant. A man who dresses hair and shaves has from twelve to fifteen rubels every month, and a cook twenty or more, besides board. Agreements for hire are monthly; and this circumstance, together with the great ease of getting into service, is the chief cause of the bad qualities of this class of people, the subject of daily complaint. This inconvenience is less felt by those who can possess or purchase slaves: the last is a privilege belonging only to the nobles and the military and civil officers of high rank. The common price of a lad is three hundred rubels; that of a girl, a hundred.’

When the Russians shall become so enlightened as to make themselves free, one servant, without doubt, will do the work of half a dozen of those poor wretches who

have scarcely any motive for exertion; for the observations of travellers in all parts of the world, where slavery is allowed, tend to prove that it is the most expensive, as well as the most disgraceful mode of service. Of the social life of the Petersburghers the following passages will give some idea.

‘Sociability is here a very different thing from what it is in most countries of Europe, with whose manners and customs we are acquainted. It does not fix itself only among friends and intimate acquaintance, as in England, where friendship, not sociability, seems to have domesticated itself. It is not confined to entertainment, as in Germany, where, with the soul satisfied and an hungry stomach, a person takes his leave at supper-time, or where a whole company is collected to enjoy a cup of coffee. Our sociable turn consists in the common enjoyment of all the comforts of life. Business and sorrow each man keeps to himself and his confidential friends: all the rest is common property, which seems to belong less to the giver than to his companions. Not merely the idle hours which must otherwise be spent between sleeping and waking, or a few days of festival, on which the mantle of pride is decorated with ridiculous expence, or the superfluities of self-interested gluttony, are here offered to social enjoyment! No—Each open day, every moment free from labour and care, are dedicated to social participation!

‘The times in which a Petersburgher in good circumstances is the most fond of a visit, are precisely those which in Germany are avoided—the times of dinner and supper. Then is every one free from care and open-hearted, free from all business, and at leisure for entertainment. He who is deliberately invited to a house, has perpetual admission when he pleases. The first visit usually determines that point. If, at parting, no other invitation follows, such an acquaintance is not farther to be cultivated. When the guest is agreeable to the host, he either names to him, at the end of the first visit, his visiting days, or requests him to make the house his home.’

From this specimen of the manners of Petersburg, it is evident that a stranger may enjoy himself in that capital; and, if the sight of lazy slaves did not detract from his enjoyment, we should say that he was unworthy of the blessings of liberty. But, in the perusal of this work, we were happy to see repeated proofs that the iron yoke of despotism is gradually becoming lighter; and perhaps one or two centuries will bring the Russians to all the enjoyments of rational civilisation.

In this performance, a very good view is given of Russian literature, arts, and sciences; and, from some poetical translations, the northern Muse promises to captivate by her strains even the more refined ears of the southern Europeans. Various anecdotes are also interspersed; and every visitant of Petersburg will find his advantage in the perusal of this work, which will, we doubt not, be put into his hands on his arrival, as his best guide to every object worthy of notice in that metropolis.

Mélanges extraits des Manuscrits de Madame Necker. Paris, 1798.

Miscellanies extracted from the Manuscripts of Madame Necker. 3 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

THE general interest with which Madame Necker's Reflections upon Divorce were received, induced her husband to publish these Miscellanies. She had accustomed herself, from an early age, to commit her thoughts to paper, and consequently left many manuscripts. 'The rare association of brilliant talents with a severe morality and the most solid religious sentiments, will not (says M. Necker) be seen with indifference in these writings. The language and the style of Madame Necker, almost always adorned with imagery, never served her but to express just views and reasonable sentiments. It was amidst a certain number of principles that her reflection travelled; but she collected much within a boundary which the authors of the age found too confined: this she did without difficulty, without effort, both in writing to her friends and in conversing with herself. All her thoughts were connected with that great chain which unites mankind among themselves by benevolence and charity, and which raises them even to heaven by faith and by hope. She had placed her personal interest in the performance of her duty; the rest was an amusement to her; and all the glories of the world would not have relieved her from the consuming chagrin which (I will not say the slightest remorse, but) even a momentary indifference to her rigid scruples, would have occasioned in her breast. Never, I believe, were seen so great an extent of mind, and so great a freedom of imagination, with so many restraints of conduct. The faculties of this lady allowed her to traverse an indefinite space; and her principles were immovable. Thus, with a daily progress in her perceptions and in her acquirements, she had preserved an innocence of heart, which, prolonging her

moral youth, diffused many graces over her person. A striking contrast ! She saw all the developements of self-love, all the arts of vanity, all the convulsions of the passions ; and she scarcely ever believed in perfidious designs or treacherous craft.—She particularly delighted in the society of men of letters : no one had too much genius for her ; but it is remarkable, that, after having passed a great part of her life in their society, and at an epoch when modern philosophy had most boldness, her religious opinions never underwent the slightest alteration ; and, without abruptness, but with a continual vigilance, she changed the conversation which might have wounded her in her first sentiment, in the respect which she bore to the Supreme Being. No kind of bigotry, or of minute ceremony, accompanied this respect ; it was great, noble, elevated, and always proper, if any can be proper, for a worship addressed to the Sovereign Master of the Universe. This respect, mingled with a holy love, had a character which, I believe, is very rare ; it was essentially founded upon gratitude, and would have subsisted in all its force, without fear and without hope. Yet Madame Necker had had her share of the vicissitudes of life : she had known, at the age of twenty-four years, the miseries which spring from a total want of fortune, and which are always so bitterly felt when they are joined to a liberal education. She was afterwards subject to nervous disorders so painful, that she gradually lost the comfort of sleep ; and, obliged by day to yield to movements of agitation, she kept herself standing even in company, and obtained a little rest only when in the bath. Amidst her last, her tender regrets, amidst the acute pains which she suffered near the end of her life, she always recollected her past prosperity, and raised her hands towards the Supreme Being, to thank him for his goodness, God ! what an example ! Who can flatter himself with the power of imitating it ? I know not whether there ever existed a piety more simple, and more proper to give a just idea of the relations of a virtuous and feeling soul with the Divinity. How often have those relations given to Madame Necker a penetrating eloquence !

“ Yes,—you see me,”—said she in an instruction left to her daughter, “ you see me upon the limits that separate life from eternity. I place my hand upon one and upon the other, to attest by both the existence of a God, and the happiness arising from virtue !”

‘ Ah ! how imposing is this declaration from a mouth so pure ! It inspires courage against the doubts and the systems of the age.’

Such is the character which M. Necker has given of his wife; and it cannot but prepossess us in favour of these volumes. As a companion to this picture, we will exhibit, in part, the portrait of M. Necker, drawn by her hand, in 1787.

‘O thou who hast at all times been the object of all my affections! thou who canst not reproach me with having given to vain pleasures the days which duty and tenderness required to be consecrated to thee, suffer me, before time or disease shall snatch me from thy bosom, to become the faithful interpreter of thy renown! I would show thee to thy own eyes such as it will one day make thee appear! I would show thee to thyself as thou art! Come and contemplate thy image in a heart which was never filled by any other; read there the permanent tablet of thy rare virtues, and secure thyself from thy own distrust; let that heart which has never deceived thee, teach thee to render justice to thyself, and permit not calumny to trouble the destiny which thy eminent virtues have rendered so fair.’

‘M. Necker loves glory; he is not without self-love, if that appellation may be given to the reasonable consciousness of our faculties; and yet he is of all men the least selfish. Beyond the reign of opinion, he accounts himself as nothing, and even that opinion he only esteems before he has obtained it. He pursues glory and praise as hunters pursue a prey, which they neglect and despise as soon as it has fallen at their feet.’

‘I have never known any one more virtuous as a public man, or more virtuous as a private man; and yet never two characters had fewer resemblances. The public man is exempt from all defect; the private man is virtuous even in his defects. The one is firm, and the other is weak; the one is economical, the other is liberal; the one is severe, the other indulgent. The one reasons, the other feels; the one yields only to motives of justice, while the other yields to all the feelings of humanity; the one surrounds himself with ice, that he may drive back all the force of life to the heart; the other obeys the first impression; and we discover, in all parts of his existence, that warmth of sensibility which the public man reserves for the nation. As a public man, we have seen M. Necker avaricious of his time, reckoning the minutes, retrenching the things that most interested him; as a private man, we see him amusing himself with mere trifles, playing like a child, and uniting all his life with those who love him. In the former capacity, we have seen him requiring assiduous labour, and irritated at the

slightest negligence: in the latter, he scarcely dares demand from those who surround him the most common attentions: it is necessary to fly to meet his wishes; an air a little less open repels him; he would have nothing but from feeling, and thinks nothing due to him from any other source.

There never was a more original mind: he always digs in his own soil; he there finds inexhaustible riches, like those mines which we discover in the bowels of the earth, without knowing how they were formed there, although they may suffice for our wants and those of posterity. He has successively brought forward in his reflections all possible ideas, without knowing the opinion of others, and even without seeking it. He finds resources in the most difficult circumstances; he removes the obstacles to thought as he does the obstacles to business, and finds out the centre in the midst of darkness, as another would do in full day; it appears, indeed, as if he had many senses that are unknown to us. In his youth he reflected always, and read nothing; so that his mind has something of the antique; one might say that it had existed before the others. Democritus believed it to be his duty to deprive himself of sight, that he might not be disturbed in his studies by external objects: the man of genius, who would not be led away from his own thoughts by those of another, follows a similar system; he rejects all light from without, as he would receive it only from his own understanding. The majority of those persons who do not renew their thoughts by reading, have something too subtle; in drawing from one bundle all that must surround their spindle, they are obliged to draw the thread extremely fine to make it last. But M. Necker is very different: whatever comes from him takes a remarkable consistence; the most trivial things aggrandise themselves in the profundity of his thoughts; he resembles those wonderful animals who change the water which nourishes them into branches of coral. He is certainly a man of genius; but he has no right to be proud, for he has done nothing by himself; nature completed him as he is, and he owes even the use of his faculties to circumstances and to solicitations. His reflection is involuntary; he reflects when he ought to act; he employs himself in details as in general ideas; he is governed by the movements of his genius, as others are by the impulse of their passions. He has ideas of his own upon all subjects, and yet he cannot withdraw himself from the dominion which the suggestions of others have over him: foreign ideas are to him so many shackles which clog and delay him: if you wish him to proceed, he must disembarraiss himself. In fine, his genius is all or nothing; he must

enter into a subject, he must penetrate it, he must follow it through all its ramifications, and must command it ; otherwise he will not interest himself in it.'

A work like this, consisting of detached thoughts and anecdotes, with a few letters and fragments of letters, is scarcely a proper subject of criticism. M. Necker attempted to methodise and arrange his wife's papers ; but he soon found it an impracticable and useless task. The book is therefore a miscellany of every thing. Some of the witticisms contained in it may be traced to our countryman Miller, of facetious memory ; but perhaps they may be new in Switzerland ; as, on the other hand, what may be antiquated jokes in that country, will amuse us in this by their novelty. Our extracts will prove that the reader may find in these volumes much amusement and some instruction.

' I know some metaphysicians (says Madame Necker) to whom I will never again speak of the beauties of nature : they have long neglected the intermediate ideas which link sensations with thoughts ; and their minds are so much occupied with abstractions, that one cannot make them partake of enjoyments which always suppose the relations of the soul with real and external objects.'

' A man of genius is the greatest miracle of nature ; and M. de Buffon never spoke to me of the wonders of the world without making me think that he was one himself.'

' A German leaped out of a window :—" What are you doing," said a person to him.—" I am endeavouring to be lively," was the answer.'

' A woman's pleading ! I desired this man to make me some handsome figures—like my lord the judge. He has made me ugly ones, like himself. Ought I to pay for his tapestry ?—She gained her cause.'

' We might define all crimes, the sacrifices of the future to the present ; and all virtues, the sacrifices of the present to the future.'

' Mr. Gibbon's work is the faithful copy of the fine genius which conceived it ; a genius which always found in its brilliant imagination the means of painting truth, and in its erudition a fruitful source of wit and feeling. If this history of many centuries had not been dishonoured by the ignoble and sterile opinions of the philosophers of our age,

we might have placed it in the same rank with Sallust and with Livy: but men of great talents have, almost all, the heel of Achilles; and the weakness of their judgment, which shows itself in some essential part of their writings, may thus deprive them of immortality.'

'Simplicity (said M. Necker) is like a straight line in geometry—the shortest line between two points.'

'When we lose our way, it is better to be upon a bad horse than a good one; for he will not carry us so far: a faithful image of a man of genius or a fool in an error!'

'Queen Christina, in abdicating her throne to give herself up entirely to the literary world, resembles that woman who suffered two fine teeth to be drawn to please her lover, because he was always saying that he was enamoured only of her mind, and that he regarded not her external charms. His mistress being less beautiful, he loved her no longer.'

'An ill-natured wit said of some person, "He is so little and so thin, that, in case of necessity, he might serve as a soul for some body." I sometimes hear arguments so dull, and reflections so trite, that I am tempted to think the souls of those who make them might, in case of necessity, serve as bodies for men of talents.'

'Boissi reproached the poet Roi for wearing a dirty shirt. He replied, "Every one has not been so fortunate as to marry his washerwoman." Boissi had married his.'

'The blockhead discovers a man of genius by an instinct of antipathy, much sooner than the man of genius discovers a blockhead.'

'A skilful agricultor, not being able at first to persuade the people to plant potatoes, left a whole field of them unguarded, in the hope of being robbed: fortunately he was so, and the people accustomed themselves to that food. Every man of genius, who prefers truth and the public good to his own vanity, will be of a similar opinion, and be pleased at being surrounded by plagiaries.'

'To describe nature well, it is necessary to have seen it. To attempt painting a tempest without having traversed the seas and undergone the dangers of a shipwreck, is like wishing to draw the portrait of a woman from the descrip-

tion of her features: the physiognomy must always be deficient.

‘ Nothing is so ridiculous in style as the imitation of fervour. All the new writers of novels wish to tread in the steps of Rousseau. The heroine of one of these ephemeral productions has a lover in prison, about to mount the scaffold: she writes to her friend, “ It is midnight, and I have not yet closed my eyes.”

‘ The silence of night adds to the soft feelings, to the happiness of loving, by fixing all our thoughts upon the object which occupies us; night also increases sorrow, for it seems to leave us alone with our own hearts, by separating us from all nature.’

‘ The first wife of the present [*late*] king of Prussia had sent for some stuffs from France, and would not pay the officer who demanded the duty. She was angry, and gave him a box on the ear. He complained to Frederic, who replied, “ The stuffs are for the princess, the duty is for me, and the box on the ear for you.”

‘ It is mentioned in a song, that a certain king, who was very fond of dancing, used to put nut-shells in his shoes, to mingle pain with pleasure. The apologue is ingenious: vice and the faults of character always produce the effect of the nut-shells.’

In the correspondence we find little of the ease of epistolary unreserve. We extract a part of a letter to M. de Saussure.

‘ No, Sir, it is not the carcase of the universe, as you have with so much energy expressed it, that you have seen extended under your feet; it is, on the contrary, the noble and colossal figure of a tremendous and sublime nature. We have followed you tremblingly amidst precipices and dangers; you have made us experience all the feelings of hope and fear which render the life of the chamois-hunter so delightful and so terrible; we have fancied ourselves enjoying with you that magnificent sight which struck you, when, like a new Enceladus, you had scaled Mont-Blanc. Certainly the chaos of Milton, the hell of Virgil, and the palace of the Gnomes in the *Thousand and One Nights*, are only childish inventions, compared with the wonders which you have unfolded to us; for nature and reality have a character which imagination cannot attain. There is, says M. de Buffon, a kind of courage of mind in being able

to contemplate, without fear, the variety and grandeur of the objects which compose the science of nature. What, then, would he have thought of the man who risks his life a thousand times to extend the limits of that science? You have proved to me, that even in this world we may conceive sensations which we have never experienced, taste enjoyments which seem to belong to a different species, and collect ideas and images of which our universe has never offered to us the first germ or the first outline. Pardon me for speaking so long of the accessories of your labour. You have anatomised the world; but it is a living body which serves you as a study, and which you have taught us also to admire. Columbus did not expose himself to more dangers than you; but he carried to America the box of Pandora, and you have brought from Mont-Blanc the most salutary plants. You have discovered, amidst the chaos, the mark of the divine hand which created the universe. You have elevated my soul, in making me see these magazines of the world; and I perpetually lament my weakness, which will not permit me to follow your steps. But my imagination frequently supplies my want of power. In perusing your productions, I hear the deep crash of the avalanches, and the crackling of the electric matter. Filled with terror and admiration, I sometimes perceive the tomb of a rash hunter; I see his spirit wander peaceably in these solitary places, and I feel that I envy him. It seems to me, that I would willingly finish my days with M. Necker in these delightful retreats, to render there a last homage to nature and to conjugal love, which alone remain to us amidst the wreck of all the illusions of life. He has entrusted me with the charge of describing to you what we have both felt; we have, while we have admired your courage, together trembled at your danger; and, reflecting on the ties which attach us to you, we believe we have a right to recommend to you the care of a life which is very dear to us.

From the extracts which we have offered, the nature of these *Neckeriana*, as they may be called, may be judged. Madame Necker appreciates the merit of her literary friends more highly than other persons have done; but this is not unpleasant; it is the involuntary exaggeration of friendship, and we readily pardon it.

Annales de Chymie, Vol. XII. XIII. XIV. (Continued from Vol. XXIII. New Arrangement, p. 523.)

Annals of Chemistry.

IN the twelfth volume of these annals, we meet with a memoir, by the abbé Haüy, on some varieties of the sulphat of barytes, or heavy spar; but an abstract of it would be unintelligible without a diagram.

M. Giobert communicates a process for preparing Kunckel's phosphorus from urine, more easy and æconomical than that employed by Scheele and Ghan with the bones of animals. These minute details are not adapted to our journal. The method is undoubtedly simple, and consists in combining the phosphoric acid with lead, by adding a solution of lead in the nitric acid.

An explanation of M. Coulomb's seventh Memoir on Magnetism, by the abbé Haüy, follows. It is difficult to give a just idea of the author's attempt in shorter words than those which the abbé employs; and we should have examined the whole in a separate article, if, after mature reflection, we had not seen great reason to question M. Coulomb's original hypothesis. If this should not be established, the whole system will fall, and the experiments will be useless. He supposes two fluids confined in the same needle, the molecules of which attract and repel each other in the inverse proportion of the square of the distance. While the needle shows no signs of magnetism, he imagines that these fluids neutralise each other; but, when it becomes magnetic, the neutral is decomposed, and each ingredient acts separately. The whole is hypothetical, and is encumbered with too many useless, and some inconsistent suppositions.

The most advantageous form of magnetic needles, in our author's opinion, is that of two long triangles united at their base, called *aiguilles en fleche*. He also remarks, that the sum of the forces of separate, similar, and equal needles, is more than double that of the bundle which they form when united. The most efficacious method of conveying the magnetic virtue, is that of the double touch. Needles made of separate laminæ are very powerful. M. Coulomb exhibited one weighing 20 pounds, to which a piece of soft iron adhered so strongly, as to require near 100 to separate it.

M. Cortinovis endeavours to prove that platina was known to the ancients, and called *electrum*. The arguments are not stated; but they seem, from some circum-

stances, to depend on the pillars of electrum, mentioned by different authors. The meaning might be, that the pillars were encrusted with amber, or that they were composed of a yellow marble resembling it. M. de Rasumowski, in his observations on the formation of granites, supposes that, as they are evidently crystallised, they must have been dissolved in a more active menstruum than water, probably the sparry acid: but the idea is not supported by recent observations. M. Carminati gives an account of a root brought from Quito, called calagnala, which has been introduced into the *Materia Medica* of some authors. It is an astringent, chiefly gummy. It resembles in many respects, and perhaps in medical properties, the *polypodium vulgare*.

The ordinary sulphuric acid, it is observed, is often mixed with some of the nitric acid: this is discovered by immersing a straw, previously dipped in ammoniacal carbonate (common spirit of sal ammoniac), round which any nitric acid, that may be in the mixture, forms a white cloud. Any portion of the muriatic acid would produce the same effects; but this is seldom found in common oil of vitriol.

The memoirs of the Italian society at Verona furnish two chemical articles. One is by M. Lorgna, who pretends that congelation not only purifies sea-water, but separates almost every kind of impurity from water. The congelation, we think, must be slow, and often repeated. The second is by M. Fontana, who supposes, from his experiments on the water of the marshes of Sienna, that flints may be reduced to powder by the sulphureous acid, and thus suspended in water. He explains, in this way, the suspension of the flint in the waters of Iceland; but the explanation is unsatisfactory and ill-founded.

The observations on the properties of muriat of tin, by M. Pelletier, form a valuable article, highly interesting to artists. Muriat of tin is either the solution of the metal in the common acid, or in the oxygenated acid. Artists dissolve their tin in different ways, which they usually keep secret; sometimes in the pure acid, sometimes, as our author supposes, in the nitro-muriatic. We may remark that the oxygenated muriat of tin, if diluted with water, will dissolve more of the metal; and the solution is then reduced to the usual state. The muriat of tin, with the sulphureous acid, is precipitated of a red colour, which soon becomes, on heating, a bright and beautiful yellow, that promises to be highly useful as a pigment. We cannot enter on the particular details, but may observe, in general, that the oxygenated muriat of tin furnishes an excellent steady mordant, at an easy rate; that the muriat of tin attracts oxygen so

strongly, as to take it from many acids and metallic oxyds; that the solution of gold affords no purple precipitate with the oxygenated muriat; and, lastly, that the common muriat absorbs oxygen from the atmosphere, and may consequently be employed to determine its proportion in any quantity of air.

M. Gadolin, of Abo, communicates the results of experiments on twenty species of lichen, as materials for dyeing, by M. Westring: many of them are natives of our own country, and their management is simple and easy.

A valuable essay by M. Vauquelin follows: it is entitled *Chemical and Physiological Observations on the Respiration of Insects and Worms*. The subjects of his experiments were, the gryllus viridissimus, locusta vermivora, limax flavus, and helix pomatia. He first describes the organs of respiration, and proceeds to consider the effects which the respiration of caterpillars and snails may have on the air. He found that insects and worms respire oxygen like larger animals, with warm blood, and convert it, like them, into water and carbonic acid; that this air is essential to them; and that they die as soon as they are deprived of it. Snails, he says, have a considerable respiratory force; and their organs are not affected by carbonic acid or azote; but they extract all the oxygen which may be united with these airs, and do not die till the vital air is wholly exhausted.

Miscellaneous remarks on chemical subjects occur in a letter from M. Giobert: and the volume concludes with an account of some new chemical works.

The thirteenth volume commences with two memoirs by M. Hassenfratz, containing an explanation of some phenomena, which seem to contradict the laws of chemical affinity. These are followed by a description of an atmospheric eudiometer by M. Reboul. The substance employed by him to separate the vital air, and ascertain its proportion, is phosphorus, when burning. This method, however, is in some respects uncertain.

M. Pelletier's analysis of what are called by manufacturers blue cinders, is not interesting to us, as they are sufficiently common in England: they contain nearly equal parts of carbonate of lime and carbonate of copper.

M. Vauquelin's experiments on the solubility of common salt in solutions of different neutral salts, with the consequent phenomena, are curious. It is remarkable that a saturated solution of nitre should be able to dissolve common salt, and then take up more of the nitre, which it would reject before: yet so little are general rules infallible, that this experiment may frequently be made with success. It is also surprising that a solution of

some salts will dissolve a larger quantity of another neutral than distilled water alone. Sometimes, indeed, a little of the former salt is precipitated, but never without a separation of heat. Sea-salt also, at the temperature of about 9° or 10° of Reaumur, is more soluble than any other alkaline or earthy neutral. It is not, however, equally soluble in higher temperatures: many neutrals will precipitate it from boiling water, while the sea-salt precipitates these neutrals from cold water. In the saltpetre refineries, common salt is separated during the boiling; yet, to make the nitre crystallise in the cold, sea-salt is added. This phenomenon is more striking and decisive with sulphat of soda. In general, those salts which require much water in crystallising, discharge a proportional quantity of heat in their dissolution, and of course absorb as much during their crystallisation. The quantity of heat thus absorbed, and let loose, should be determined with more precision. We shall add the results more comprehensively, as it is a subject little understood, even by experienced chemists. 1. The greater part of the saline solutions are decomposed by common salt, with the separation of a quantity of heat, in proportion to the salt precipitated. 2. Some solutions deposit more of their salt than they dissolve of common salt; and the latter occasionally produces no precipitation. 3. Similar masses of different salts require different quantities of caloric for their solution; and they have not all an equal affinity for water, at least at the temperature employed by M. Vauquelin. 4. The solutions are never wholly decomposed by common salt, though a little of it is always mixed with the salt precipitated: the solution, in consequence, always becomes specifically heavier.

M. Pelletier's 4th and 5th memoirs on the union of phosphorus with metallic substances, offer nothing that we can select. Phosphorus, in the mineralisation of metals, acts nearly as arsenic does. It may also, it is said, be united to metallic oxyds; but this point requires farther examination.

M. Reboul's description of the valley of the Gave, in the Bearnois district, is written with the clearness and intelligence which distinguish M. Saussure's philosophical narratives. In general, it is observed, that the vast chains of mountains in Europe, in Asia, and America, have valleys parallel to them, which may be styled longitudinal.

‘I confess (says M. Reboul) that I have been unable to distinguish, in the country through which I have passed, any traces of a longitudinal valley. That of the Gave, in the Bearnois, cuts the chain at right angles, where it is most

broad and high. If, in following it, I have sometimes found, at its sides, other valleys running from east to west, or in the contrary direction, these have been discovered to be very short, terminating on one side in the high mountains, and on the other in the transverse valley, which unites them all. It is in other respects easy to convince ourselves, by casting an eye on a map of the Pyrenees, that the rivers have formed their beds from north to south, or in the contrary way; and that, of all the torrents which contribute to produce the Garonne and the Adour on one side, and to augment the Ebro on the other, very few arise on the east or the west. It would be to oppose every principle of sound philosophy, to believe that rivers burst through immense mounds, through the bosoms of vast mountains, rather than follow the natural hollows ready to receive them.

‘The mountain of Marbore is in reality the Mont Blanc of the Pyrenees: its strata open on all sides in immense ravines and deep valleys; and its pics exceed, in height, those of the whole chain. M. Ramond, the favourite painter of Switzerland, has observed, in the middle regions of Marbore, ice, which had the compactness and blue colour of that of the Alps. This mass, however, was wholly calcareous. The observations which I have made in the valley of Estaubé, confirmed by those of M. Ramond, have convinced me, that its strata, the section of which on the side of France appears horizontal, are inclined towards Spain in an angle of 45° . The whole of this calcareous mass, which I have examined on the side of France, rests on granite, on argillaceous schistus, or on the intermediate flinty rocks.’

The height of Mont Perdu, the highest pic of Marbore, is about 1760 toises; and our author thinks, with reason, that no part of the Pyrenees exceeds 1800 toises: it is indeed probable that no point exceeds that of Mont Perdu in height.

Three ample memoirs on the nutrition of plants demand some attention. In the first, M. Hassenfratz shows, we think decisively, that the root, or seed, contains carbone sufficient (for that is the only ingredient which air and water do not furnish) to bring the plant to a certain point; a point which does not reach to the production of seeds; for plants, in their embryo state, contain, like embryo animals, nourishment only for a certain period. In examining the boasted experiments of Van Helmont, Du Hamel, and Tillet, he proves that, when their plants went beyond this period, they had a communication with the earth. In the second memoir, the writer shows, by a series of judicious experiments and logical reasoning, that the carbone is not acquired

by the decomposition of the carbonic acid; and in the third (which occurs in the fourteenth volume) he proves that it is conveyed to the plant, dissolved in the water by which it is nourished. Its source is the earth.

The report of MM. Parmentier and Pelletier, on M. Grenet's method of making glue, is a valuable collection of the chemical methods of separating gelatinous substances from animal matters. The inventor uses bones, from which he separates the glue with ease and simplicity. He supposes that the remains will make what we call ivory black; but the reporters observe that the beauty of the black colour depends on the charred gelatina, and that from ivory is most beautiful, because it contains the largest portion of gluten.

M. Pelletier's experiments on the combination of tin with sulphur, are afterwards given. It is supposed, that not more than 20 pounds of sulphur can be united to a quintal of tin, without the assistance of some medium, as mercury, or crude sal ammoniac. M. Pelletier found that the tin was thus oxydated: he therefore endeavoured to unite the oxyd of the metal directly with sulphur; and he succeeded, even in the humid way. He also examined the result of the distillation of the aurum musivum (a compound of tin and sulphur), either alone or with charcoal: and he has mentioned several new ways of preparing this splendid substance, to which he has given the denomination of sulphurated oxyd of tin.

The volume concludes with some uninteresting extracts from Crell's annals.

The fourteenth volume begins with an account of the methods practised by the peasants of the Black Forest, in Suabia, to procure the salt of wood-sorrel. It is generally known, that what is sold in England as the salt of lemons, is only the salt of wood-sorrel, flavoured with the essential oil of the lemon-rind. The error, or the deception, is not great, for the salts are nearly the same. We fear, however, from what we have lately observed, that a worse sophistication is sometimes practised, and cream of tartar substituted in a large proportion. The true salt of wood-sorrel is, we believe, occasionally prepared in this country; but much of it is imported from Germany; and chemists find, that the cost of labour and of fuel is considerably greater than what is paid for the salt. The true process is therefore of importance. We cannot transcribe the whole, but may observe, that the plant is not the acetosella, but the *rumex acetosa foliis sagittatis*; and that the peasants separate the mucilaginous parts by water, in which fine clay has been diffused;

these afford, in burning, not an atom of alkali. Two crystallisations render the salt sufficiently pure.

We meet with an interesting report by MM. Berthollet and Pelletier, on M. Jeanety's process for working platina. These chemists first give a comprehensive account of the different attempts to fuse this metal, and then describe M. Jeanety's process. It consists in adding arsenic and pot-ash, and fusing the mixture repeatedly, till all the iron is separated. Platina must be very useful in many respects. It is capable of being extended in leaves like gold, is unaffected by moisture, by acids, by alkalies, or by sulphur; and is, perhaps, expanded very slightly by heat, or contracted by cold. The Spaniards may now permit its exportation, as chemists have shown, that gold cannot be adulterated by it in any important degree; or it will be determined whether, as has been lately pretended, the quantity dug up is inconsiderable.

M. Fourcroy's 'memoir on the phenomena which result from the union of volatile alkali with the nitrate and muriate of mercury, and on the triple salts resulting from their combination,' is too minutely chemical to detain us. Mr. Henry's observations on ferments, &c. first appeared in our language; and M. Haüy's memoir on the structure of the crystals of the nitrate of pot-ash, requires a diagram for its illustration.

M. Pelletier's memoir on the preparation of the phosphoric and phosphorous acids, deserves the attention of practical chemists; but we should not greatly assist them by abridging it. M. Margueron, in a clear and judicious memoir, examines chemically the synovia of the joints. Its substance is albuminous, but different from the albumen of the blood, and not very unlike the gluten of wheat.

An important memoir by M. Hallenfratz, the conclusion of which is not given, follows. It is entitled 'a memoir on clays, and their use in the glass houses, and porcelain works.' It contains the general history of clay, points out the parts of France where it is chiefly found, and gives an analysis of the best sorts.

M. Margueron has chemically examined the serosity which fills the bladders produced by blisters, and finds it exactly like the serum of the blood.

M. Vauquelin relates two or three experiments on the diminution of bulk supposed to take place in some saline solutions from the addition of salt. In reality, as heat is set at liberty, an expansion would be more probable; and, on inquiry, no real diminution was observed, except in consequence of the air displaced by the salt, which occa-

sioned more loss of bulk than the extricated caloric could supply. In these experiments, the glasses occasionally broke, from the crystallisation of the salts; and, as there was no air in these vessels to occasion the expansion, the author seems to doubt whether the breaking of glass vessels, by freezing water, may not rather arise from the strong, sudden action of the crystals against the sides of the vessels, than from any separation of air, to which the fractures have been attributed.

An extract from a memoir by M. Deiman, &c. on the nature of liver of sulphur, is curious, though, in substance, generally known. A letter, relating to a new gazometer, and extracts from some German periodical publications, conclude the volume.

La Philosophie de la Politique, ou Principes Généraux sur les Institutions Sociales, ou l'on examine les grandes Questions de l'Egalité, de la Volonté générale, et de la Souveraineté du Peuple, et l'Abus qu'on a fait de la Doctrine de J. J. Rousseau sur ces Matières. Précédé de l'Eloge de ce grand Homme, en Forme d'Introduction. Par F. L. D'Escherny, Comte du Saint Empire. Paris. 1797.

The Philosophy of Politics, or General Principles of Social Institutions; in which are examined the important Questions of Equality, the general Will, and the Sovereignty of the People; together with the Misuse which has been made of the Doctrine of J. J. Rousseau on those Subjects. Preceded by an Eulogium upon that great Man, by way of Introduction. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

THE work before us is one of the numerous productions which have originated from the French revolution—a phenomenon that mocks description by the variety of its assumed shapes, but which, with mischievous aim, continues to diffuse consternation over the political hemisphere, resembling in its progress the eccentric and angry orb that

from its horrid hair
'Shakes pestilence and war.'

To those who had long contemplated the manners and the events of Europe, a revolution in France could not occasion surprise. To a period of time not very remote from the present, the government of that country retained all the odious privileges and slavish appendages of the feudal system, scarcely preserving any of the parts of that military fabric, which contained inherent principles of political vitality. Such a government, in a region so populous, could be supported only by deception, practised on

the vanity of the people; and the airy ignorance of the French character was admirably calculated to favour the deceit; a deceit which, operating on the same character, now enables the upstart pageants of the republic to play

‘Such fantastic tricks before high heaven

‘As make ev’n angels weep.’

Thus did national vanity, an enthusiasm for trifles, and a careless ignorance of the genuine principles of government, long support the monarchy of France. From the general to the soldier, from the poet of genius to the miserable sonneteer, from the titled courtier to the valet, from the wealthy bourgeois to the peasant with wooden shoes, all fought the battles, sang the praises, adored the person, and talked of the glory, of the *grand monarque*. It is, however, ultimately dangerous for governments, as well as individuals, to presume on mere popularity; for, if the main operations of a government be not practically beneficial, it will not in the hour of trial find a refuge in the prejudices of habit, or in the weakness of opinion. If the trumpet of innovation be sounded, whether by the patriot or by the incendiary, the popular breath that gave a superficial applause to the pageant of yesterday, will instantaneously join in the clamours that demand its downfall. This was the frail foundation upon which stood the throne of the Capets. A profusion of the public treasure had enfeebled the state; depravity of morals, and consequent contempt of religion, in the higher classes, had corrupted the bulk of the people; and the body politic thus fatally diseased, when touched by the finger of Reform, quickly crumbled into dissolution. Such an event, from its nature, could not be solely injurious to the government of the country in which it occurred. The demagogues who, after the feeble predominance of other factions, usurped the chief sway over France, found it necessary for their purposes to use the compression of terror, to bind together, as a bulwark of power, those jarring atoms of political society, which, having lost the centre of practical adhesion, would never have obeyed the call of system.

Among the writers, or (in compliance with the fashionable appellation) the *philosophers*, of whom the French demagogues have boasted themselves the disciples, Voltaire and Rousseau are the most distinguished.—Voltaire, sagacious, witty, unprincipled, and superficial, exposed with success the abuses of religion and of civil society, but unhappily taught his countrymen to despise the substance of the one, and was unable to show them the solid foundations of the other. Rousseau, ardent, ingenious, and

paradoxical, shook the fabric of social morals by the aid of the passions, and dismissed his political pupils to the licentious liberty of nature, with empty exhortations to virtue and freedom. From these prolific sources of mischief have sprung the dogmas which have tinged the changing aspect of the Gallic revolution with alternate absurdity and horror—the natural equality of man, and the denial of a superintending providence. The Deity, after a temporary deposition, was indeed again recognised, for necessary purposes, by the French legislature; but Equality has uniformly maintained her ascendancy over the revolutionary system. Sometimes the versatile goddess personates a *sans-culotte*, butchering a priest; sometimes a *poissarde*, demanding the head of a national representative: now she rolls in the blazing equipage of a money-jobber, and now assumes the appearance of a young married man going to join the troops of the *fourth requisition*: sometimes she invisibly superintends an Italian or a Dutch contribution, and sometimes conceals herself in the plume, or epicurises in the sumptuous palace, of a director.

To investigate the nature and operations of this powerful agent is the purpose of the present work, to which, begging excuse for the length of our preliminary remarks, we will immediately conduct our readers.

M. D'Eschery, in his advertisement, alludes to the important operation of the term *equality* in the French revolution, and informs us, that it was his intention to have given the word for a title to these two volumes, as the most *piquant* and interesting that could be chosen, but that, being apprehensive of intimidating many worthy readers from the perusal of them, by a title so congenial with the recollection of crimes, he adopted that which his work now bears, in order to facilitate his views in writing it, and to preclude suspicion of his intentions.

In the preface, he observes, that these volumes are to be regarded as a continuation of his ‘Correspondence of an Inhabitant of Paris,’ which, he intimates, was favourably received. To the work which is now before us we are extremely well disposed, as it discovers considerable talents and moderate principles—a valuable combination, not very frequently found in political productions. Of the author's disposition the following remarks afford a specimen.

‘By philosophers I shall perhaps be called a bigot, and by bigots a freethinker: by royalists I shall probably be considered as a republican, and by republicans as an aristocrat: for men of the world I may prove too abstract, while readers of deep reflection may think that I have

written too much for men of the world. I hope, however, that I may be able, in consistency with my principles, to preserve that just medium which sacrifices nothing to clamour—that medium so barren to writers who are influenced by vanity, but so valuable to those who have no other wish than to be useful—that medium which displeases parties, and excludes the author who observes it from their patronage during his life, and perhaps from their notice after his death. I have resolutely sacrificed self-love, and, risking contemporary neglect, have steadily fixed my view on three objects—the public good, truth, and posterity.’

The writer’s talents are respectably displayed in his *Eloge on Rousseau*. This is, for the most part, a delicate and well-conceived irony on a state of nature, and, by an implied *reductio ad absurdum*, strikingly exposes the fallacy of the speculations of the Genevese philosopher. We present our readers with some passages on the subject.

‘Rousseau was altogether composed of sensation, and was profound only in sensibility. He excelled in the knowledge of the dispositions of women, who are by nature beings of sensation. To obtain this knowledge, he had occasion only to search his own heart; an inexhaustible fund of feeling gave him the power of enchanting the sex; and his own temper often discovered the caprice, suspicions, and little weaknesses of women. Let us observe how his genius supplied materials for his skepticism—he sighed for truth and virtue; and not perceiving either in the world that surrounded him, he was led to doubt of their existence. By an astonishing fiction, he endeavoured to find them in ignorance and instinct, in their two negative states; for ignorance and truth are two notions which exclude each other, and simple instinct is incompatible with virtue. Perception, of necessity, intervenes; and there can be no virtue without knowledge and cultivation; yet, by a dexterity not less admirable than new, both ignorance and instinct become instruments of discovery in the hands of Rousseau. Archimedes only wanted a place for fixing his engines, in order to move the world; and what he desired, Rousseau accomplished. He fled from the moral world to a state of society impossible to be realised, and totally different from any in existence—that is, a *state of nature*. He there found a place for fixing the metaphysical lever by which he wished to shake our whole system of morals, and overturn all our ideas. If we closely inspect the contexture of all his works, we may perceive that he has effected a revolution not so much by erecting as by destroying: he beats down, he overturns, he tramples, he breaks;

but, whenever he destroys, something new is created. It is this art of creating by destroying that characterises Rousseau, and stamps him as an original genius, without equal and without model. He may therefore be regarded as the founder of a new system of negative philosophy, important in its consequences and utility beyond all other philosophical systems.'

'It is on the study of man in his various relations, that the knowledge of his happiness in society depends. The parts of a machine must be separately well known, in order to direct their co-operation to one purpose, and to be acquainted with the adaptation and strength of the springs by which it is to be moved. The most useful and interesting study is obviously that of man. Of the philosophers who have devoted themselves to that study, each has chosen a track descriptive of his own talents. Locke, possessing that intellect which reasons with itself, descended into the depths of his mind for the purpose of analysing it: he therefore reflected all other minds from the surface of his own. Malebranche, a more adventurous but less certain conductor, elevated his speculations to the fountain of all thought, and, considering the human mind as an emanation from that source, placed his mirror of reflection in the bosom of the Deity. Others, like Tacitus and Montesquieu, neglecting such metaphysical views of man, have solely attended to his moral character. Tacitus does not so much describe the manners of a simple and rude people as satirise his countrymen—the dissipations, the vices, and the crimes of Rome, were naturally contrasted by the unpolished probity of the Germans. The soul of a Persian transported into Paris, is the mirror from which Montesquieu has reflected the varying habits of the French, their follies and their vices.

'These two methods of observing and describing men are admirable: they ingeniously exhibit every feature with its requisite relief. By a contrivance nearly similar, but executed in a grand style, Rousseau has reflected the qualities of an imaginary being on an existing model, not of a particular nation, but the whole system of humanity. The result of the experiment is worthy of the grandeur of the idea. That writer, in his imaginary model, has included the whole of the relations of man to nature—the most elevated point in which it is possible to consider the human species.'

'The genius of Rousseau was distinguished by the rare quality of contemplating the object of his reflection in all

conceptions. After having considered the immense and diversified fabric of human establishments, he involved all of them in one common proscription: he took the reverse of all received ideas; and, as they are a mixture of truth and error, of opinions rational and absurd, he applied reason in favour of these, and against the others. Two great effects resulted from these contrasts—the detection of evils to which the best institutions are liable, and the discovery of advantages which remain concealed amidst prejudices and abuses.

Upon the topic of equality, the author makes these remarks:

‘Equality is destructive of liberty, because its existence is merely transient. It should rather be suppressed by the law than by force; for a legal inequality protects liberty, while an inequality produced by violence overturns it. A difference of ranks and conditions is so inherent in a body politic, that no law can destroy it, and establish equality of rights. Inequality would certainly take place in defiance of the law; and where is liberty when the law is violated? It is better therefore for the law to concur than to struggle with the necessity of things, and present the spectacle of a perpetual defeat. The question may be reduced to this point. Inequality is a necessary evil: is it better that it should be established by force than by law?’

This is the question of equality in a nut-shell. What a waste of many sage and soporific speculations on the subject!—We proceed to extract a concise and accurate critique on the *Contrat Social* of Rousseau.

‘In the *Contrat Social* I can perceive nothing but vague and arbitrary principles, obscurities, forced turns of expression, and subtilities substituted for the frankness of reason and the conviction of evidence. It explains none of the phenomena of the system of civil society; nor does it reason upon doubtful cases. The rights of life and of death, and of keeping persons in slavery, are not accounted for; and Rousseau himself does not dissemble his embarrassment, when he considers the right of pardoning, which he attributes to the *sovereign*, meaning the *general will*: this right he is unable to reconcile with the apparent impossibility, that the *general will* should be occupied with an *individual and determinate object*.’

As a flattering coincidence with the opinion of our author, we are induced to mention the circumstance of Mr. Fox having said in the house of commons, that the *Contrat Social* was a book which he had attempted, but in vain, to read through.

M. D'Escherny afterwards combats many specious maxims of the revolutionary school, with sound logic, and an apposite use of historical examples—He notices the commercial prosperity and the social happiness of Great Britain, which he attributes to the form of our government; but mentions, as a defect, that there is not a sufficient number of nobility interposed between the commons and the king.

The following unhappy contrast occurs among some spirited sketches of scenes in the French revolution.

‘I have seen a thoughtless, gay, and frivolous people, suddenly transformed into Romans, affecting lofty language and all the austerity of republicanism, and exercising cruelty, not lavishing praise, on their victorious generals; but I have seen them quickly return to their natural disposition, employ their legislation upon shows, imitate the licentiousness of Rome, not its liberty, and choose the *Saturnalia* for their constitution. I thought that I beheld, as at Carthage in the time of calamity, sacrifices of human blood renewed in the country of the arts and the sciences, and that I saw a people, reeking from the slaughter of 8000 victims, fly to victory under the standard of the infernal powers, to whom the sacrifices were offered.’

The discipline of the republican armies has appeared not very reconcileable with the tenets of political disorganisation, which they have been made the powerful instruments of defending and propagating. Our author thus states and solves the difficulty.

‘The soldier of equality recognises no superior, and consequently cannot be termed rebellious. If he should be punished as such, the republican army would rise in its own defence. How then, it may be asked, can the democratic soldier be reduced to that obedience without which war cannot be successful? A single word performs this operation to a miracle: every member of the army who in his station does not immediately execute the orders of his commander, is punished with death as an *aristocrat*, or as guilty of *counter-revolutionary* conduct; and thus, by a mere word, discipline and subordination are established. O powerful influence of terms! The epithet *counter-revolutionary* checks the traitor, awes the soldier into obedience, and restores victory to the republican flag. The epithet *revolutionary* produces effects still more astonishing: it excites emotion similar to that of a tempest, the people ferment, and rise in a mass; all France precipitates itself, like an overflowing torrent, on its frontiers; and the formidable armies opposed to it on every side, are no more than slender reeds, obliged to yield to the impetu-

ous currents which bear down upon them and sweep them away.'

The crimes of the revolution occupy many volumes; but, according to this writer, its advantages may be enumerated in a very narrow space. After speaking ironically of the law adopted on the motion of the sanguinary Couthon, by which the republican juries or judges were allowed to substitute moral proofs in the room of legal evidence, he says,

'Let us consider the discoveries by which the republic is now enriched: an uniformity and invariability of weights and measures, the swiftness of telegraphs, and the organisation of aërostats—the metaphysical schools, which, as it were by magic, enlighten the human species—and the new methods of fabricating salt-petre, gun-powder, leather, and men of genius, by the means of normal institutions.'

The satire of this passage, unfortunately for mankind, is too just. Violent changes of government are rarely productive of benefit; but it is the peculiar anomalous character of the French revolution, to have produced infinite mischief with scarcely a particle of good; and both the present generation and posterity will wonder at, and regret, the scandalous perversion of an opportunity offered to a great nation, of gradually becoming wise, free, and happy: these words have indeed been sounded through the trump of equality, but they have been sounded to deceive, and to a people who either could not, or would not, understand their meaning, who have been the infatuated dupes of impious and sanguinary factions, and who now crouch beneath the despotism of a government professedly republican, which, however, can be distinguished from the subverted monarchy only by the excess of its arrogance and profligacy—a government of bombast and hyperbole, which over-steps the modesty of nature in all its transactions—which, under false pretences, ravages the territories, and plunders the property of its neighbours—which views with haggard envy, and with futile anger, the prosperity and the firmness of insulated Britain—which even extends its bloody and mercenary fangs across the Atlantic; and endeavours to contaminate the politics of those who, in their sober and prudent revolution, knew not the massacres of Lyons, or the crimes of Paris.

The author of this performance has not confined himself to the refutation of mischievous tenets in the political science. Justly considering true religion as connected with the welfare of every civilised state, he has, in the beginning

of his second volume, adduced some able arguments on the immortality of the soul, and other congenial topics. As a repository of characteristic sketches, fragments of the speeches of demagogues, &c. during the fiercest revolutionary ebullitions of France, the work is curious and valuable. That the writer is a man of ability, is evident from our quotations; and the importance of a subject thus skilfully handled, cannot but render the work interesting.

Christliche Schriften. Dritte Sammlung.—Von Gottes Sohn, der Welt Heiland, nach Johannes Evangelium.—Vom Geist des Christenthums.—Von Religion, Lerneinungen, und Gebräuchen. J. G. Herder. Leipzig. 1797.

Herder's Christian Writings, third Collection: 1. On the Son of God, the Saviour of the World, according to John's Gospel: 2. On the Spirit of Christianity: 3. On Religion, Opinions, and Rites. 8vo. Imported by Escher.*

IN these three treatises, an eminent writer continues to give his sentiments on the most important subjects of religion; and Trinitarians, Arians, Socinians, mystics, enthusiasts, all will rise up in battle against him. But they cannot contend with him; for he will not wage war with any. Argument and syllogism, disputes on words, and vehemence of expression, are entirely lost on one whose great drift it is to exhibit christianity as an enlivening principle of action, not a theme for disputation—as a subject intelligible to the meanest capacity, yet escaping the subtilties of the most learned—a doctrine influencing the heart, correcting and improving the temper, and inspiring the breast with love to God and all mankind.

Before M. Herder enters upon his subject, he investigates the character of St. John's gospel, as differing from the rest, and makes these observations.

‘The great end of our evangelist is to give the true sense of the expressions, *the Son of God*, and to shew how, as saviour of the world, he gives everlasting life. The apostles did not esteem themselves called or authorised to introduce new doctrines; but it was their business to build upon these expressions, used by Christ himself, as upon a rock. St. John has done the same thing in his gospel. Would any

* See our XX1st. Vol. New Arr. p. 503.

one, on this account, call it dogmatical? It may be so; yet it explains no new doctrine, and is employed on the single ancient christian dogma. Would any person call it polemical? Let it be remarked, that it defends, and does not attack. It contends with weapons of love and conviction, not with the fresh-sharpened arrows of presumption. The prudence of grey hairs dictated it, not the rashness of youth. Would any one call it a spiritual gospel? It may be so; but the other gospels are not carnal: they also contain the living words of Christ, and are founded upon the same rock of faith. St. John, by his gospel, would not displace them, but would explain, strengthen, complete them.

‘ This gospel (he adds) is a complete work, composed upon a fixed plan, in exact order, with studied regularity in all its parts; and it is ratified within and without by the seal of truth.’

The first eighteen verses of the gospel in question occupy a considerable degree of our author's attention. These verses have been, for many ages, subjects of contention; and the contenders stood in need of the remark that this ‘ is a gospel of peace, not a mandate against heretics, or a formulary of the inquisition.’ The plain significations of the words are to be examined. John thought in Hebrew, and wrote in Greek. We must look to Hebrew metaphors, to Hebrew writings, to understand his terms. The systems of Plato, of Zoroaster, and the Gnostics, will lead us into error. This is clearly pointed out by an examination of the three systems; and those of Cerinthus, Saturninus, Basilides, and Valentinian, are also investigated. M. Herder now gives his own interpretation, which agrees with the leading feature in the religion of the Jews—that there is only one self-existent being, Jehovah, the true God; that the phrase *Son of God* can be taken only in a moral sense; that the invisible God was present in his son, who was to mankind the speaking God. ‘ He was not only the inmost interpreter of the divinity, but his all-active organ to revive in the human race the god-like dignity, for which he was created.’ This interpretation leads our expositor to some remarks on fathers, on councils and canons; and he has put the following address into the mouth of John.

‘ My beloved, we require not these things. My doctrine and that of my brethren, concerning our Christ, were simple and intelligible. Without him we knew not God; we looked up to Christ as to one through whom God revealed himself. When God had spoken for a long time by the mouth of the wise men and the prophets, he spake to us

by his son. This son had only one notion of God, that of father, from which he derived every thing relative, either by knowledge or action, to the salvation of mankind. Of himself he had only one idea, that of son, who was to obey and imitate his father. Of man also, he had only one notion, that he is a fallen creature, to whom, however, there is a higher destiny, by which mankind will become a happy family of brethren, a godlike race. Our notion also of the son was clear: we loved and honoured the father in the son; and we looked upon the son as our brother.'

Several miracles, actions, and discourses of our Saviour are now examined; all of which, according to M. Herder, were related by the evangelist for the purpose of proving in what sense Jesus was the saviour of the world; and it is from our ignorance of those times that we cannot, on this plain construction, give an account of every syllable in this gospel. The trinity of modern times is not to be found in it. 'God (says our author) is in Christ; Christ is inseparably in active community, through the spirit, in his own disciples: this is St. John's trinity, as intelligible as heart-felt.'

The question, of the use of this gospel to us, is answered in a satisfactory manner; and in this, as well as in the other parts of the work, though we cannot in every instance agree with the author's interpretations, we highly approve his mode of investigation. He looks to scripture alone for the explanation of scripture: he rejects all metaphysical speculations, he is filled with the noblest ideas of the wisdom and goodness of God; and, with him, christianity is not a mere exercise of the reasoning principle, but a cordial sense of the love of God toward mankind, exemplified in sending Christ to be the saviour of the world. Every thing which opposes that love, whether from ambition, self-interest, or the interest of the church, is anti-christian; and the prevailing idea throughout the work is, that God is love, and that christians ought to love each other.

The spirit of christianity is investigated in a similar manner. The meaning of the word *πνευμα* is examined with care; and the ideas entertained by the ancient Hebrews when this term (or a corresponding word in their language) was used, are explained with propriety. Hence the use of the term amongst the early christians is reconciled with its original meaning.

In treating of religion and its dogmas, our author well distinguishes between the principle that affects the heart, and the science derived from the accurate investigation of the phrases or sentences of creeds. He does not think it unim-

portant to have the creed accurate; but to digest it in such a form of words as will suit every one, seems to him impossible, and superfluous even if it were possible. The discriminating mark of a christian is to believe that Jesus is the Christ, the Son of God, the saviour of the world: the other points, if introduced so as to destroy the bonds of love which ought to subsist among christians, are marks of deviation from the christian character. Hence it appears that the system of religion is very simple. There may be sects, there may be differences of opinion, without breach of charity; and while each is convinced in his own mind of the rectitude of his intentions, and of his desire of arriving at the truth, he cannot be far from the right path. But if, with this rectitude of intention, and earnest desire of approving himself a member of Christ's community, the zeal of any one should carry him to the excess of imposing a single article of his creed on another, or of interfering in any way whatever beyond spiritual love and persuasion, he swerves from the religion of Christ, becomes carnal, throws himself out of spiritual communion, and, till he repents of such a crime, is an alien from the gospel, a slave to the maxims of the world. In this and other parts of the work, sentiments are delivered very different from those which generally prevail; and we shall select one, as a farther specimen of our author's manner.—On the modern notions of the devil he is particularly severe; and he reprobates the system, as a philosophical diaboliad, invented to do honour to the evil principle.—‘Where (says he) is it written that Satan, as a being of a higher order, can take away enjoyment from any earthly and bodily object, constitute himself the sole proprietor of all the goods of the earth, and, in spite of the good principle, erect a kingdom of sin, to which all men sprung from Adam must be subjected? Where is it recorded, that the good principle, on account of its lawful pretensions to dominion over mankind, secured itself by the erection of a statutable government, and for this reason formed the Jewish state? Where is it written that Satan offered to Jesus, as a seemingly dangerous rival, to make him a partner of his kingdom, and, when this offer was rejected, not only deprived him, as a stranger and an intruder, of whatever could make life comfortable, but excited against him all kinds of trouble, and persecuted him to an ignominious death? Miserable Satan! or rather, in this new philosophical light, glorious Satan! how much is ascribed to thee, that thou mayest enjoy the honour of occasioning the salvation of man! thou art still more glorious, since, according to this doctrine, thou dwellest in human nature as sovereign lord! It is not then true, that every thing which God created

was really good, and that man, according to the expression of scripture, was made in the form of God. It is not then true, that he lost this form, and that it is the end of religion to bring it back to its former purity. It is not true, that this happens when we lay aside the temper corrupted by irregular desires. No! the devil himself exists in us: we have a radical depravity which the scripture knows not, but which the philosophy of religion has invented. According to this philosophy, the baseness of man is not a departure from law; the good inclinations of men in themselves do not fall into disorder; there were no bad habits, no growing depravations of our race, from examples, allurements, or temptations, or from false maxims. No! the devil has crept into us; and radical evil adheres to us.

‘Of what use is the high moral law that I give myself, when another law and a radical power are within me to annihilate it? Pure inclination is a mere formulary, while the Satan in our nature is the mighty one by whom all our desires are enslaved. Even the Jews have not raised to so great a height their *jetzer hara*, the base quality in men.

‘Dreadful is the power that such visions have over the fancy and unguarded heart of thoughtless, dissipated men. The philosopher who reflects in solitude, can scarcely represent to himself the emotions which a mere sound personified in sport, the radical evil, Satan the sovereign ruler of the world, the possessor of the human soul, &c. excite in those men who give way to fancy. Read the Jewish histories, or those of barbarous nations. Are you not often shocked at the power of personification over lively tempers, and still more at the inclination for representing and realising the thing personified? Hence arose the execrable belief in forcerers and witches; hence the custom of imputing to the devil that which arose from another source; hence that negligence in expelling vice, which, by radical indolence, we sow and bring up in ourselves. Nothing plants itself so strongly as a dream of the imagination. It is mixed with what is credible by education, by an inherited way of thinking; it becomes the prejudice of families and of nations; and, lastly, it is called common sense, that is, prevailing folly. Thanks are due to the holy one of Nazareth, for dispelling such phantoms. We, my brethren, will not labour to destroy his work, or introduce into his religion a phantom which may baffle the aim of all religion.’

From the extracts given, our readers will not be at a loss in forming their opinion of the style and sentiments of an author who is very popular in his own country, and whose

work is evidently formed to correct the disputatious theology with which Germany was over-run. For above two hundred years the Lutherans, the Calvinists, and the Catholics, have in that country been vying with each other in producing large works to establish their respective opinions, and have been persecuting each other on a variety of subjects of little or no importance, while the plain sentiments of religion, as acting on the temper and disposition, seem to have been either neglected or misunderstood. The aim of this work is to reclaim men to a better mode of thinking, to teach them that faith is better than speculation, and love superior to both. At a time when the contending parties are attacked by a foreign enemy, and infidelity threatens all with indiscriminate ruin, they will be more inclined to listen to the soothing accents of the gospel, to inquire into the real nature of those opinions which keep them at variance with each other, and to explode what has been introduced into the church by folly, ignorance, or fraud; and having their minds no longer distracted by human inventions, they may, both by their principles and actions, lead even infidels to better notions of the christian faith. If this should be the effect of the work before us, it will give great joy to all who have a regard for christianity, or a due sense of religious and moral duties.

Histoire de la République Française, depuis la Séparation de la Convention Nationale, jusqu'à la Conclusion de la Paix entre la France et l'Empereur; par Antoine Fantin Des-Odoards, Citoyen Français. Paris. 1798.

History of the French Republic, from the Dissolution of the National Convention, to the Conclusion of Peace between France and the Emperor. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

TO write a history of the French revolution, the greatest event of modern times, may be deemed an arduous task. M. Des-Odoards, however, was not discouraged from the attempt by any considerations of trouble or difficulty; and, as he had prepared himself for the undertaking, by engaging in the composition of former volumes of Gallic history, he thought himself fully competent to the prosecution of an extended task of the same kind. He therefore published a 'Philosophical History of the French Revolution, from the Convocation of the Assembly of the Notables, to the Dissolution of the Convention.' That work having met with a favourable reception, he has been induced to continue it; and the sequel is now under our eye.

This part of the history is introduced by a just reprobation of the atrocities of the Robespierrian sway; and some remarks follow, on the state of the public mind at the cessation of the sanguinary system.

When the constitution of the year 1795 began to take effect, both the jacobins and royalists were diligently employed in opposing it, the former being instigated by a hatred of all regular government, the latter by a detestation of republicanism. The true republicans were the objects of the malice and invective of those two parties, which, while they hated each other, agreed in one point—that of harassing incessantly the new rulers of the nation. The jacobins were the more powerful of the two factions, as they had risen on the ruins of the royalists, and had become proprietors of the confiscated estates of the privileged orders. The changes which appeared in many of these obnoxious men are compared by our historian with the metamorphoses described by Ovid. ‘Those vile robbers and assassins, those filthy *sans-culottes*, with straight black hair, ferocious eyes, hideous aspect, and insolent demeanour, were transformed, as it were by enchantment, into polite gentlemen, or rather into affected coxcombs. Their rags and wretched accommodations were replaced by rich apparel and costly furniture: instead of walking with thick knotted sticks, they rode in elegant carriages; and the barns in which they concealed their thefts under the veil of pretended indigence, were changed into magnificent palaces. A groom occupied the hotel which had belonged to a duke; and a valet found himself incommoded even in the habitation of a prince.’

After the mention of some sanguinary disturbances in the south of France, particularly at Marseilles, the writer enters upon military details. The affair of Quiberon arrests his attention for some time. He will not allow that the neglect of a scrupulous observance of the terms of the capitulation, granted to the royalists of la Vendée, occasioned a renewal of insurrection. That, he says, was a mere pretence: ‘the real cause may be traced to the perfidious art with which the English ministry kindled on every occasion the revolutionary fire that devoured France.’

From his account of the Quiberon expedition, we will translate some passages relative to the termination of the enterprise. After the recovery of fort Penhièvre by the republicans, ‘the Chouans commanded by Puyfaye, embarking in flat-bottomed boats, dispersed themselves over the main land. The emigrants rallied under the conduct of Sombreuil, and endeavoured, by their resistance, to give

their wives and children an opportunity of taking refuge in the English vessels. One half of their *corps*, however, passed over to the army of general Hoche, declaring their attachment to the republican government. The camp being forced, those who were driven from it re-assembled upon a rock at the extremity of the peninsula. The army marched against them in three columns. Two of these went to the right and left, near the sea, to cut off their retreat; while the central column advanced upon their front with a formidable apparatus of artillery. At this time, many women and children, eagerly throwing themselves into the chaloupes, perished in the hazardous attempt, presenting a melancholy spectacle amidst the horrors of war.—Several English corvettes had stationed themselves very near the shore, not only to obstruct the operations of the republicans, but also to favour the embarkation of the fugitives. The vanquished, sending forth cries of despair, signified a desire of capitulation. General Hoche ordered them to lay down their arms. While they were holding a parley, it was observed that some chiefs were taking advantage of the occasion to go on board. The fire of the French artillery instantly re-commenced; and the emigrants, having only the alternative of being drowned or pierced with the bayonet, surrendered at discretion.

The author mentions, that he had seen an account published in England, in which it was affirmed, that the emigrants received a promise of being treated as prisoners of war. This assertion he controverts on strong grounds, particularly alleging the extremity to which those unfortunate men were reduced, placed as they were between fire and water; a situation in which they could not presume to insist upon terms, though an humane enemy, it might be thought, would have granted favourable conditions.

Of the Vendéan chiefs, Charette and Stofflet, he thus speaks. 'Charette, whose intelligent and active spirit sustained for several years a very difficult war, was of an ancient parliamentary family at Rennes, which performed an important part in the affair of La-Chalottais, in the reign of Louis XV. It is probable that, if he had been appointed deputy to the constituent assembly, the desire of being revenged upon the court would have thrown him among the minority of the nobles who coalesced with the commons. Interest and ambition made him the leader of a party. His age amounted to thirty years: he was of a moderate stature, had a resolute look and a martial air, and was unpollished in his manners.—Stofflet had much more influence

over the minds of the Vendéans, than Charette; and he is said to have been, in concert with a priest named Catherineau, the first author of the war of la Vendée. He had acted as chief huntsman to the count de Maulevrier; and he led the peasants to battle as he would his dogs to a boar-hunt. The contempt in which he affected to hold the nobility, his bold demeanor and boastful disposition, gave him a degree of personal authority which Roche-Jaquelin, Beauchamp, Delbée, Lescure, and other commanders of the Chouans and Vendéans could never obtain: but he did not equal those chiefs in military talents.'

A copious history is given of the transactions of the Italian campaign in 1796. Buonaparte, the director of that campaign, seems to be the favourite hero of this writer, who extols his penetration, his intrepidity, presence of mind, and martial skill, applauds his affability and easiness of access, and speaks in a high strain of his extraordinary influence over his army. Some exaggerations appear in the narrative of the circumstances attending the success of the French beyond the Alps; but such partiality is not very surprising.

Various military details are followed by an account of the affairs of Corsica. The conduct of Paoli is censured as perfidious towards the French, who had restored him with honour to his native country; and it is affirmed, that his partiality to the English met with that neglect which his treachery deserved. M. Fantin says with a sneer, 'If Paoli found the English less generous, and less willing to confide in him, than the French were, he ought to have reflected that a *nation of traders* know how to calculate, and that, by having, in their favour, abused the confidence reposed in him by the French, he had put them on their guard against similar perfidy.'

Of the state of the interior of France, in the fourth year of the republic, ending in September 1796, the historian presents us with a sketch. Discord and animosity, it appears, still prevailed in a high degree. Many of the provinces were agitated with alarming commotions; and the towns exhibited the rage of party, and the distractions of conflicting opinions. The roads were infested with banditti; and a general want of order and tranquillity perplexed and disgraced the government.

Among the parties of that time, four were distinctly marked. These were, the republicans who were attached to the constitution of the year 1795; those who wished to restore that of the year 1793; the more moderate politicians who preferred a limited monarchy; and, lastly, the

advocates for the full re-establishment of the old *régime*. Of these parties, the first had a manifest superiority.

The conspiracy of Babeuf is not placed by our author in the clearest light: but he affirms, that the contrivers of it intended to murder all the members of the directory, some of the legislators, the ministers and various subordinate officers, to pillage the metropolis, and proclaim the constitution of 1793.

Reverting to the incidents of the war, M. Fantin circumstantially describes the celebrated retreat of Moreau. He then relates the expedition of Hoche against Ireland. The number of soldiers that accompanied this general, amounted, he says, to 15,000; and the fleet consisted of 22 ships of the line, besides smaller vessels. 'This fleet (he adds), braving the sea in its utmost fury, carried the French warriors into the bay of Bantry. Never before did republican energy so daringly display itself; and, though the incessant rage of winds baffled the well-concerted scheme, the boldness of the enterprise must have convinced the English how much they had reason to dread the efforts of a people whose projects nothing could check but such obstacles as were absolutely insurmountable by human force.'—He does not mention the loss of any one of the ships employed in this expedition; but affirms, that they all re-entered the road of Brest.

The progress of Buonaparte in Italy, the victories obtained at Arcole and Rivoli, the reduction of Mantua, and the seizure of some of the provinces of the ecclesiastical state, are successively recounted. The contests between the republican general and the archduke Charles, and the success which intimidated the latter into an assent to preliminaries of peace, are afterwards particularised.

The aristocratic plot which was discovered in January, 1797, is detailed at greater length than it deserved. The malcontents who were pronounced guilty, were not capitally punished; and we may therefore presume, that their criminality was not deemed very atrocious, or that the conspiracy was not fully proved.

The next subject is the revolution of Venice, on which no new light appears to be thrown. We may extend the same remark to the account of the revolution of Genoa.

The indulgence shown to the royalists who were tried for the last-mentioned plot, is represented by M. Fantin as the chief encouragement of the party to those intrigues and machinations, or to that regular conspiracy (for he agrees with the directory in maintaining that a grand plot had really been formed), which led in its consequences to the triumph of the republican cause. He animadverts on the

conduct of the legislative majority, as being calculated to favour the aims of the anti-republican faction; and does not condemn, as he ought to have done, the unjustifiable treatment of the supposed delinquents who were banished without trial.

At the conclusion of the work, the writer boasts of the flourishing state of the republic, and expresses his confidence in the permanency of the new government. Upon the whole, we may allow some merit to M. Fantin; but it is merely that of mediocrity. Many parts of his performance seem to have been hastily compiled: the mode of narration is rarely elegant or energetic; and the remarks are, in general, of the ordinary cast: but the work is far from being destitute of utility or entertainment.

Essai sur les Maladies Physiques et Morales des Femmes, par le Cit. Boyveau Leffeigneur, Medecin, Proprietaire du Rob Anti-syphilitique, &c. Paris.

Essay on the Physical and Moral Disorders of Women, by the Physician Boyveau, Proprietor of the Anti-syphilitic Juice or Syrup. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

WE observe, in this performance, an affectation of delicacy, sensibility, and humanity; qualities of which the appearances are so often employed by physicians, in large cities, to captivate the attention and secure the good offices of the weak and trifling part of both sexes; but such arts, though frequently successful, degrade both the practitioner and his science. The professed object of the essay is to instruct women in the fundamental principles of pathology and medicine; but the real design seems to be to obtain, at an easy rate, a little popularity, and perhaps to promote the sale of the 'Rob Anti-syphilitique;' for many disorders are attributed to a syphilitic fomes lurking in the constitution, for which the use of such a remedy must be obvious. The author's attempt at popularity, however, does not wholly depend on these circumstances. He will soon be the favourite of the elder scholars of every female seminary; for he recommends early marriage in terms which we cannot with propriety translate. We shall extract, however, a few lines from the end of that chapter which treats of refrigerants, supposed to check desire.

Why should amorous inclinations be checked by medicine, when philosophy alone can regulate them?—Must a woman become stupid, to be the ornament of her sex;

and cannot she render herself dear to the Governor of the Universe, without injuring her body and enervating her understanding? Continnence, in an unmarried state, is essential to a woman who respects herself; but to prolong it by dangerous means to a period when it is no longer a virtue, is destruction to her constitution, and an insult to nature.'

Our author notices the principal writers of every age who have written on the diseases of women; and then considers, under the title of 'Physical relations,' the dress, food, &c. of persons of that sex. 'Moral influences' respect the passions most conspicuous in females; fear, credulity, extreme sensibility, &c.

The 5th and 6th chapters relate to the constitution and diseases of women, from the time of puberty to that of marriage, and also after the contraction of that union.

The 7th and 8th chapters contain the advice necessary in the last period of female diseases, and some instructions to women respecting syphilitic affections. In these chapters there is undoubtedly much sound and judicious advice: that which relates to the diseases which forbid the conjugal connexion, deserves much attention: what relates to gestation is also just and proper: but we will select a specimen from some part of more general importance.

'It is a prevailing opinion, that, in warm climates, the sex is most favoured by nature; and, in support of it, the beautiful forms of the Georgian, the Persian, and other eastern females, are adduced. But I am not speaking of beauty. I am only considering that vigorous constitution, without which beauty is as transitory as grace. In this respect, it is allowed that the women of the North have, in general, great advantages over those of the South. The exercise which preserves the former, would enervate their rivals. Though these are more lively, yet, from the relaxation occasioned by heat, they would soon lose that appetite which is the principle of life in all animated nature, were it not constantly irritated by the use of aromatic chocolate, as in Spain, and spices, as in the East and the Antilles.

'It must also be remarked, that, in warm climates, women, to recruit their exhausted powers, find sleep more particularly necessary than it is in colder regions. This shortens the period of their activity, and consequently their career. In hot countries, it is remarked, that beauty too soon fades, and passes away like its brilliant image, a

flower; that the impulse to love is extreme, and that its excesses are most dangerous.

‘What would clearly show, that nature has not placed her most finished productions in the Tropics, is, that the women, there, are less fruitful. It is not the same in the North, whence the Cimbri, the Goths, and the swarm of conquerors that destroyed the Roman empire, proceeded. There, with respect to population, nature seems to have displayed her energy; it was justly called, by Jornandes, *officina humani generis*. I am, however, inclined to think that beauty and health, conjoined, are found neither in the North nor in the South: extremes are injurious to both. The temperate zone of our hemisphere seems most favourable to the female sex; since nature smiles in three seasons; and, even in winter, the cold is calculated to preserve the tone, restore weakness, and check contagion.

‘The most favourable situation for finding the precious gifts of nature seems to be in an habitation where the neighbouring mountains break the most piercing winds, and stop every pestilential contagion. Shropshire, a county of Great-Britain, is deservedly commended as the most healthy spot in the three kingdoms, where all the men are of a robust frame, and the women vigorous. It was there that Thomas Parr lived to the age of 152; whose body was found by Hervey in a sound state, except that the brain was much ossified. In the same line of salubrity, we may place our islands of Hyeres; that part of the canton of Berne, which, flanked by mount Jura, rises over the lake of Geneva; and, above all, the Bannat of Temeswar, where, in the middle of this century, there were 30 old men, 15 of whom were almost 100, and others above that age.’

This volume is agreeably written, and the advice which it contains is salutary. We only regret that the language is sometimes too warm, and may occasion those injuries which the precepts might otherwise prevent.

Voyage à la Guiane & à Cayenne, fait en 1789 & quelques Années suivantes, par L. M. B. Armateur. Paris. 1798.

Travels in Guiana and Cayenne, in 1789, and some following Years. 8vo. 7s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

ON examining the continent of America in a map, we find its opposite shores approach; and the sea seems nearly to divide it at the isthmus of Darien. It soon, however, again expands; and the coast trends northward and to the east.

Its direction is afterwards to the south. The coast of Guiana is in this part, and extends from the river Oronoque to the northern point of Brasil: inland, the territory reaches the north-eastern borders of Peru. The vast mountainous chain, which is almost the vertebral chain of the American continent, runs in most parts near the western coast; and those elevations which are the source of Cook's river, run in their principal direction to the west of the Allegany mountains, are washed by the sea at Panama, and form the confines of Peru and Chili very near the Pacific. The land which forms Guiana seems to have been gained from the sea. It is not improbable that the boundaries of this country, the Oronoque on the north, and the river of Amazons on the south, with the intermediate rivers of Oyapoco, Apronago, and Marauny, have driven back the Atlantic, and produced, by the accumulation of soil brought from the mountains, this part of the continent. What strengthens the supposition is, that the whole of this region is flat, and the rivers fall from a slight elevation, rolling their muddy streams with very little velocity. The sea seems to have burst on the continent, leaving the highest hills uncovered to form the different islands; while some others seem to have arisen from volcanic eruptions. This we collect from the different construction of these mountains, some being of the original granite, and some volcanic. Guiana may have been gained from the sea in consequence of the change which occasioned the formation of the gulf of Mexico; for the current which passes westward into the gulf, again rushes with great force to the north and east, so as to form the stream which has not lost its force and direction even at the banks of Newfoundland. The coast of Guiana is therefore in the eddy; and the sea is, of course, liable to be driven back by the rivers.

Having endeavoured, in this detail of philosophical geography, to explain the probable formation of this part of the continent of America, we shall attend more particularly to our author. He early treats of the river of the Amazons, the most remarkable stream in the new world. Its source is in the Andes; and it is said to be navigable for boats of some burthen, above 2000 miles. Numerous rivulets form the first stream, which receives a great accession from Rio Negro, so called from the dark hue of its waters. These rivers unite with a sullen dignity, as if disdaining to be indebted to each other, and continue to flow ten or twelve leagues in the same channel with little union of their streams.

The Oronoque rises among the mountains which separate Peru from New Grenada, and is remarkable for its depth. It is, in many parts, from 60 to 100 fathoms deep: it

continues to swell five months, and decreases in an equal period, remaining at its highest flood and lowest ebb respectively for one month, thus completing the year in its revolution. It is also affirmed, that every twenty-five years the greatest increase is two feet and a half above the fall of the twenty-four preceding years. In the most contracted part of its bed, it seems to rise 120 feet. It is navigable only about 35 leagues; and, in this short course, it is interrupted by three cataracts.

From the description of the trees and plants which grow on the banks of the Oronoque, or its tributary rivers, we shall extract the author's account of the properties of the palm-tree. This useful tree, he remarks, supplies all the wants of the people in its neighbourhood.

'They draw from it, by incision, a whitish fluid, which has a sweet and pleasant taste, and, in a few days, becomes spirituous. In the opening thus made, while any of the juice remains, white worms are found, which resemble butter, and furnish a pleasing nutritious food, when the disgust, which their appearance excites, is conquered. When the wounded part furnishes no more worms, it is filled with a spongy mass, which contains a kind of farina, resembling fine starch: of this substance tolerable bread is made; but it is so heavy, as to disagree with those who are not accustomed to it. The fruit consists of large round dates; the pulp is a pleasant food; and the date also contains an esculent kernel. Of the planks of this tree, the natives build their huts, covering them with the leaves. From the leaves also they spin a kind of hemp, of which they make cords; and they use the bark for making chests and boxes of different kinds.'

From the account of the quadrupeds we shall select the observations upon the ante, which the Spaniards call the great beast. 'The ante has little resemblance to the quadrupeds of Europe. It lives equally well in water and on land. It is as large as a mule; its feet are short and disproportioned to its size, and are terminated by four claws. Its head is like that of a hog; but, between its eye-brows, is a bone, with which it strikes and beats down an enemy. The tiger watches this animal, and springs on it behind. If the country is clear, the ante is certainly destroyed; but, if there are trees or bushes in the way, they are fatal to the tiger; for the ante rushes into the thickest part of the wood, and its adversary is, in a moment, dashed or torn in pieces.'—This animal has by naturalists been called the ant-bear, and is supposed to feed on emmets. It appears to be of a kind between the rhinoceros and hippopotamus. Perhaps the

idea of its food has been suggested from the name, which, however, has no relation to the European insect.

We will also introduce the account of the *caficuse*. 'Among other extraordinary animals of the countries watered by the Oronoque, we may distinguish the *caficuse*, a kind of cat, without a tail, and with wool resembling the down of the castor. It sleeps all day, and goes out at night in pursuit of birds and serpents. It is very gentle, and, when brought into the house, never quits its place through the whole day; but, at night, begins its excursions. It pushes its tongue, which is long and small, into every aperture; and, if it goes to a bed, where any one is sleeping with his mouth open, it never fails to examine this aperture also.'

Of the bat he says, that it may be ranged with the birds. 'It is a very dangerous animal in this country. There are two sorts: the smaller differ little from those of Europe; the larger are nearly of the size of a pigeon, and are hideously ugly. Both species fly about all night, to pierce, with the very fine point of their tongue, the skins of men or other animals whom they find sleeping, and to suck their blood. If those who sleep do not cover their whole body, they are wounded; and, should a vein be opened, they pass imperceptibly from the arms of sleep into those of death; for the air, agitated by the wings of the bat, refreshes the sleeper, and makes his slumber more profound.'

Our readers will here see the origin of the German superstition respecting vampires. Since the author mentions the wound as being made by the point of the tongue, there is great reason to suppose that the blood is drawn by suction, without any real division of the skin. The sleep, therefore, is less likely to be interrupted.

Accounts of fish, serpents, &c. follow; but, as we have not room for the many very extraordinary narratives, which occur in this part of the work, we shall select some of the shortest.

'The *guaricotos* are very voracious, and particularly fond of human flesh. It is the smell of the blood that attracts them; and persons who have not the slightest scratch, need not fear swimming among them, if they can avoid the *sardinas-bravas*, which accompany the *guaricotos*. These little animals, which have a long red tail, are so troublesome and greedy, that they fix immediately on the skin to bite; and the first drop of blood which they draw, tempts the *guaricotos* to assail and devour the man.

'Of the different kinds of serpents, with which the deserts are filled, the *buio* is the most remarkable. It resembles

the trunk of a tree, and is covered with moss, like an old log of wood. It is from 15 to 20 feet long, and large in proportion. Its motion is almost imperceptible; for it can scarcely proceed half a league in a whole day. Its body makes an impression on the ground, like that of a tree dragged along. When it hears a noise, it lifts up its head, stretches itself, and turns towards its prey, whether it be a tiger, a deer, or a man. It then opens its mouth, and emits such a venomous vapour as to stupify and even attract those who are within its influence. The only method of preventing the bad effects of this effluvium is to break, by a motion of the hat, the column of tainted air: the enchantment is then destroyed, and the person is free. On this account, the Indians never travel alone. The buio has no teeth, and therefore employs a long time in swallowing its prey, which, however, it does not fail to accomplish, as its throat is very large. These animals are very common in marshy and watery places, and often devour the incautious hunter or fisherman.

The manners of the inhabitants are nearly those of all uncivilised races on the continent of America. They seem to be indifferent christians; but, being informed that they are to go to heaven, after the termination of this life, they are contented to resign it, and, in their eagerness for the enjoyment of promised felicity, are even willing to be buried alive. Dr. Bancroft seems to distrust the account of the sacrifice of the old women, in the preparation of their most fatal poison; but the present writer, whose credibility we shall soon examine, gives a full account of the process, and of the deaths of the successive attendants on the caldron.

‘The Caverres, the most ferocious and inhuman of those tribes which inhabit the banks of the Oronoque, prepare a poison, which is called *curare*. It is, in no respect, acrimonious, but may be tasted and swallowed with impunity, provided there be no wound in the palate or fauces. When it touches the smallest drop of blood, it congeals the whole in a moment; and when a wound is inflicted by an arrow dipped in it, however small the scratch, the man dies before he can utter four words. It acts with equal activity on apes, buffaloes, tigers, and lions: if they receive the slightest wound, their death is almost instantaneous. It appears to have no influence when a person has salt in his mouth; but its fatal effects almost always ensue before the specific can be employed. It is drawn from a root which has neither branches nor leaves, concealing itself as if conscious of its malignity. This root grows not, like other plants, in common ground, but in the corrupted mass of stagnant lakes and ponds. The Indians gather, wash, and slice it, then boil it in large kettles. But, as the process is highly

dangerous, they employ old women, who, they say, are in no other respect useful. These rarely survive, and more rarely refuse the office. One at a time is placed near the stove; and, when she dies, she is replaced by another, who usually shares the same fate, without any opposition either from herself or her relatives. They know that it is the lot of women at their age, and think themselves honoured, if by their death they can serve their country. When the water is cold, they press out the decoction, and again boil it, till it has acquired the consistence of a syrup. During the first operation, their strength begins to fail, and the second kills them before they see its end. Four of these victims are sacrificed, before the poison reaches its perfection: When one-third has evaporated, the dying groans of the old woman give notice of it. The principal chiefs then try it. A slight wound is made in the arm or leg of a child, and the poison moved towards, without touching, the blood. If it returns instead of flowing, the process is complete; but, if it continues to flow, another old woman is sacrificed in the farther evaporation.

Other preparations of a similar kind are recorded; and, by the strangeness of some of these narratives, we were induced to examine the accounts which former writers had given of this country and its inhabitants, and to compare their descriptions with those of our author. In this comparison, we did not find any decisive confirmation of his credibility; yet, in many parts, there are traces of what in the present volume is more particularly described; and we must allow, that, if this author has been imposed on, or aims at imposing on others, he has the air of confidence which generally accompanies truth. Upon the whole, though much is marvellous, we find nothing impossible; and what we know to be true is so fairly related, that we may trust to him in those points with which we are less acquainted.

The historical parts of the volume are accurate and comprehensive; and the writer has well described the present state both of Dutch and French Guiana. The French division extends little more than 100 leagues. If not the most fertile, it is the most healthy part of the country. The account of the climate we shall transcribe.

‘ Though this country is under the line, its heat is neither oppressive nor constant. Besides the nine months of rain and the succeeding drought, no other change of season is experienced. Fruit may be gathered in all seasons: some trees offer it fully ripened, while others are in bloom. When the sky is not cloudy, and there is no wind, the dew, which begins to fall at four in the morning, occasions a coldness that requires additional covering. Exposure to

this dew, during sleep, is dangerous; for it is so corrosive, as soon to consume a bar of iron.

'The rainy season, or the winter, begins in October. It is called the rain of acajou, because this fruit then ripens. The rain soon becomes so copious and constant, that it is difficult to preserve the furniture, on account of the moisture. But this is the time when cattle find the best pasture: at this season, the rain often continues day and night, and comes on with such violence, as frequently to cover the surface of the earth with water, in the course of an hour. Six days, however, scarcely elapse, in the whole year, without the sun shining in its greatest splendour, so that the inhabitants can constantly work or walk in elevated places, or those which are not marshy. The rains diminish at the beginning of June, and cease about the end of July. From this time, to the 10th of November, scarcely a drop falls; but, in different years and different places, there are exceptions to the general rule. It rains less in the cleared than in the wooded country; much less in Cayenne than in the neighbourhood of the Oyapoco; much more in Surinam than in the French colonies.'

The trees, plants, quadrupeds, &c. of French Guiana are afterwards noticed. Methods of improving its commerce, and several other topics, are discussed; and the manners of the Creoles and the Indians of that territory are described. Upon the whole, the work may be read with pleasure and information, and may with advantage be brought forward in an English dress. It is illustrated with various engravings.

Vie de Lazare Hoche, Général des Armées de la République Française; par Alexandre Rouffelin: suivie de sa Correspondance publique et privée avec le Gouvernement, les Ministres, les Généraux, etc. dans ses divers Commandemens des Armées de la Moselle et du Rhin, des Côtes de Cherbourg, de Brest, de l'Ouest et de l'Océan, d'Irlande, et de Sambre et Meuse. Seconde Edition, corrigée, et augmentée de trois Planches. Paris. 1798.

The Life of Lazarus Hoche, General of the Armies of the French Republic; by Alexander Rouffelin; followed by his Correspondence, both public and private, with the Government, the Ministers, the Generals, &c. in his different Commands of the Armies of the Moselle and Rhine, of the Coasts of Cherbourg, of Brest, of the West and of the Ocean, of Ireland, and of the Sambre and Meuse. The Second Edition, corrected, and illustrated with three Plates. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

BIOGRAPHY is sometimes satire, more frequently panegyric; and the moderation of each will be proportioned to

the importance of the hero's actions. The victories of Hoche, and the enterprises planned by him, entitle him to the gratitude of republican France, and to the execration of her enemies. The present biographer has laconically dedicated his work to the Eternal Republic; and we have of course a panegyric.

In commencing his subject, the author says, 'I knew little of the person of general Hoche when death struck him; but I well knew his exalted virtues, and I partook of the inconsolable regret of his friends. Even when my mind was less under the dominion of grief, the loss of general Hoche appeared to me most great and irreparable. But, when my mind recovered the power of contemplating that death in its different aspects, I perceived that it had not taken away every thing from my country, because it could not take away the useful example of the noble actions of the defunct. Then I felt that all of Hoche had not perished; and I conceived the project of re-animating his nobler part. The advice of many republicans encouraged me in this design. The information which I could collect at Paris was insufficient. It was necessary, not only to treat my subject with truth, but to give my conscience the security of truth, to certify by the evidence of my own eyes much of the intelligence which I had received. It was necessary that I should see the great theatre upon which Hoche had appeared most in action. I transported myself to the armies which he had commanded, to behold the vestiges of public affliction, to collect the tears and hear the sighs of his comrades, to see the field of his triumphs, and to visit the cottages, in which (though his victories for a moment terrified the inhabitants) he left happiness. I enquired every where; I investigated the character of the man; I considered nothing as too minute which tended to develope it. I thought that domestic habits, words, even gestures sometimes unperceived by the vulgar, were often the light of history and its clue. I sought, among those who were nearest to Hoche, the recollections that he had left in their minds; I engaged myself, if I may so speak, in the pursuit of his life; and I followed the trace even into the hearts of his enemies.'

From this extract it will appear, whatever we may think of the style of M. Rousselin, that he possesses the proper industry of a biographer; and the names of Cherin, Grigny, Ney, Hedouville, Leveneur, &c. the friends and fellow-soldiers of Hoche, whom he thanks for their assistance, give some degree of authority to the work.

Lazarus Hoche was born in 1768, at Montreuil, near Versailles. His father was keeper of the dog-kennel of

Louis XV. He was born in the lap of poverty, says Rouffelin; and what is the fable of Hercules attacked by serpents in his cradle, but the allegory of a great man shackled in his childhood by the bonds of adversity? His father could give him no education; but his aunt, a green-grocer at Versailles, was fond of the boy, and sent him to school. He afterwards became one of the supernumerary grooms of the royal stables.

Finding opportunities of reading some parts of the works of Rousseau, he was roused to a spirit of exertion; and several novels which fell into his hands contributed to the same effect. He now offered himself as a soldier for the East-Indies; but he was deceived, and found himself by a trick enlisted in the *Gardes Françaises*. As his figure was graceful and portly, and as he was distinguished by his quickness and intelligence, the grenadiers of the *Rue de Babylone* wished to have him for their comrade. They pointed him out to their commander; and he was admitted into their regiment. The generality of his new companions were superior to him in knowledge; and the future hero of the republic was not formed to be contented in inferiority. He was in want of books, and had not the means of purchasing any, as his father was poor, and his pay small; his own labour, therefore, was his resource. He rose early, and spent the day in working for the gardeners in the neighbourhood of Paris: part of the night he employed in embroidering waistcoats and *bonnets de police*. The decency of his appearance interested many persons in his favour; and his little traffic prospered. The money thus acquired was allotted to three weekly uses—the payment of the soldier who did duty for him, the amusements of which he partook with his comrades, and the hire of books.

In the amusements and parties of his fellow-soldiers, he was always the most cheerful of the company; but amidst his gaiety he set the example of decorum and sobriety. In the regiment, his friends were chosen among the bravest: 'The bravest (he would say) are the best.' There was a romantic fidelity in his friendships. One of his friends having been killed in a quarrel between the townsmen and the soldiers, he thought revenge his duty, and led on a party to sack the house where the soldier had fallen. For this offence he was punished with imprisonment; and when, upon his release, he returned to the barracks, he was without shirt or stockings. His friends joyfully received him, and denounced vengeance against the informer: 'It will only be an evil the more,' he replied: 'have I not told you a hundred times, that mankind are good for very little?' The man who had been instrumental in his punishment

was afterwards under his command; and he loaded him with favours: but it is said that he seldom mentioned without tears the wretchedness to which his confinement had reduced him.

In this instance, however laudable he might have thought it to revenge the murder of his friend, his punishment was assuredly deserved; but he sometimes suffered under the idle tyranny of military power. As he was a strict observer of discipline, it was his pride to do his duty; and, as he knew his conduct to be irreproachable, his spirit revolted against the vexatious authority which he felt to be unjust. In these cases, he always obeyed with a proud and contemptuous silence; and, when sentenced to confinement, would take the keys with *sang-froid*, and open the prison-door himself.

Great pains were taken in 1788 to prevent the soldiers from imbibing the general and increasing discontent. It was thought prudent to employ them incessantly, that they might have no leisure to reflect upon what was passing. With this view, a change of tactics was introduced. Hoche learned so rapidly, that he was soon appointed to teach, and was promoted to the rank of corporal.

The scenes of royalism (says M. Rouffelin) which in the beginning of the revolution passed at the king's theatre, will long be remembered. The players then, rejecting the qualities of men and of citizens to which philosophy had newly elevated them, and degrading themselves even below the nothing from which they had been raised, would have made the nation stoop to the level of their own meanness, would have corrupted the public mind by their eternal bowings, and would perpetually have led the spectators to the feet of royalty, that they might offer the adoration of slaves. At one of these scenes Legendre was present, who was then a member of the district of the Cordeliers, and afterwards deputy for Paris. We may imagine what uncomfortable feelings he must have experienced, when he sat in the pit amidst the repeated cries of *Vive le Roi*. The royalists, not contented with insulting the patriots by their shouts, wished to make them repeat the choruses of their songs; and, not being able to make the voices of their adversaries join in these counter-revolutionary strains, they attempted to make them at least take off their hats. The patriots resisting, the ruffians hired by the royalists rushed upon the spectators who would not become their accomplices. The latter defended themselves with courage. A great tumult arose: every one seized his enemy; and many blows were given and received. Hoche was then upon guard at the theatre: and he endeavoured to restore tranquillity. Among those who resisted, Legendre made him-

self remarkable by his boldness, and by the vigour and dexterity of his movements. Hoche distinguished him above all others; he saw in him one of the most mutinous disturbers: he immediately seized him by the collar, called assistance, and took him to the *corps-de-garde*. Some minutes afterwards, Legendre was demanded by the citizens of his section, and set at liberty. But he had been forced to yield to a soldier invested with the character of the law; and his soul was deeply humiliated by the affront which he had received in the good cause. The first use which he made of his liberty was to demand satisfaction for the insult which he had received. He ridiculed Hoche, accused him of holding the bridle of La Fayette's white horse, and challenged him to a duel. Hoche promised to meet him, and repaired to the place appointed. His seconds were two of the French guards; that of Legendre was Danton. They began to draw their swords. 'What are you going to do?' cried Danton; 'will he who shall cut the throat of the other believe that he has done right? He will only have committed a crime; and I declare myself the avenger. You have both been in the wrong: embrace each other! Thou, Hoche, tremble at the thought of sullying thy sword with the blood of thy brother! One day thou shalt draw it against the enemies of thy country; one day it will be the safety of the republic and thy glory.'

Danton succeeded; and those who intended to fight separated in friendship. Legendre became eminent in the convention, Hoche in the army: Legendre had forgotten Hoche; but the general had not forgotten Legendre; and, whenever he sent an aide-de-camp to Paris, he expressly charged him with some remembrance to his former enemy. It was not before they met at the house of Tallien on the anniversary of the 9th of Thermidor (27th of July) that Legendre knew to what circumstance he was indebted for these attentions from the general, and recollected in him the soldier of the French guards.

The abilities of Hoche did not long remain in obscurity. His conduct at a review recommended him to Servan, then minister of war, who gave him a lieutenant's commission in the regiment of Rouergue; and, in June 1792, he left Paris to join his regiment at Thionville. He was soon removed to the army of the Ardennes, which Leveneur commanded during the absence of Valence. That force and the army of the north were under the orders of Miranda, while Valence and Dumouriez were intriguing at Paris. Miranda left the troops without provisions; and Leveneur, while he was besieging Maestricht, was thus exposed to want. Hoche had been noticed by him for his talents; and

he was charged to procure subsistence for the soldiers. As he honourably distinguished himself in this and other services, Leveneur appointed him his aide-de-camp; and, when Dumouriez avowed his treason, Hoche was the bearer of the intelligence to Paris. He was now advanced to the rank of adjutant-general; but he did not assume the title on his return to the army. He loved Leveneur, and called him his father; and, when that officer was arrested by order of the commissioner Levassieur de la Sarthe, Hoche exclaimed aloud, 'Do Pitt and Cobourg then govern France?' A soldier accused him of saying, that Pitt and Cobourg should soon govern France; and he was delivered over to a revolutionary tribunal then sitting at Douay: but he had the satisfaction of being acquitted.

In the defence of Dunkirk, his services merited farther promotion; and he was nominated chief of brigade. Here he conceived the project of invading England or Ireland: it employed his mind when illness confined him to his bed; and he communicated the idea to one of the members of the committee of public safety. Being now appointed general of brigade, he attacked Nieuport, and was repulsed; but he was one of those men who profit by misfortune: he wrote to the committee, and suggested that plan of attacking *en masse*, to the adoption of which the republic is indebted for her glory, and perhaps for her existence.

The rise of Hoche had been rapid; but his talents justified those who had promoted him. The stable-boy of Versailles became the commander of an army; and the princes of France and of Germany fled before him. Landau was relieved; the lines of Weissenbourg were forced; and Hoche was distinguished among the preservers of his country.

Let us now consider him as a lover. A girl of Thionville had attracted his notice; and he commissioned one of his friends, who knew her family, to demand her in marriage. 'The citizen Dechaux her father (says our author), astonished, and even confounded, at the thought of the honour which so great a general would do him, went to see his future son-in-law. Hoche embraced him; and the following short conversation is all the history of his marriage.

Dechaux. The honour which you intend for our family is beyond what I and my wife could hope. Our daughter is not calculated to be the wife of a general; she is destined for a volunteer, a lieutenant, or, at most, a captain.

Hoche. Though I am now a republican general, I was once a serjeant.

Dechaux. The respectable manner in which we live may perhaps make you believe that we have more wealth than we really possess.

Hoche. You wrong me. It is not a portion, but a wife, that I seek.

Dechaux. Pardon, citizen general, the observation which I now make. It is customary, when a person proposes himself as a husband, that the parents of the woman whom he demands should receive some information concerning him.

Hoche. That information will be short and simple. I was born near Versailles; my mother died soon after my birth; my father is still living at Paris; my name is Lazarus Hoche, and I have been a foldier from the age of sixteen.

Dechaux. But my daughter is very young, not yet fifteen.

Hoche. I wish for a young mind, one that I may form myself. Your daughter appears to possess all the qualities which I desire. I conclude, citizen Dechaux, from all your observations, that I shall be your son-in-law.

Dechaux. Citizen general, you have taken your father-in-law by assault.

Hoche. After having heard all your remarks, I have only one to make. Is your daughter's heart at liberty?

Dechaux. I believe so.

Hoche. I request an hour's conversation with her, to assure myself of that point.

That hour sufficed to convince Hoche that her heart was free, and that she was disposed to love him. A few days completely determined the affair, and he became a husband.

But these were the calamitous days of the revolution, when those men who had assumed the supreme power indulged every mean and wicked passion, and exercised all the enormities of tyranny. The ablest and most active friends of liberty were involved in the common danger. Hoche had a powerful and unforgiving enemy: it was St.-Just. He had refused to communicate a particular military plan to that commissioner, because, he said, secrecy was necessary. St.-Just was offended: he was also displeased because, when the armies of the Moselle and Rhine had effected a junction, he had wished to give the chief command to Pichegru, while the other commissioners insisted on the appointment of Hoche. St.-Just was obliged to yield; but, in his reports of the subsequent successes to the convention, he endeavoured to rob Hoche of his glory; and Pichegru, it is said, meanly sought to appropriate to himself the chief merit of the exploits. Hoche wrote to the committee of public safety, requesting the members to examine his correspondence with Pichegru and his official orders, and ascertain who it was that planned and executed those important actions.

While only the English journals did justice to this able general, St.-Just was busy in plotting his destruction. He was nominated general of the army of Italy; but, when he went to take the command, he was arrested at Nice. A confinement in the Conciergerie was the reward of his services. Among other books, he had the Epistles of Seneca in prison: one sentence particularly struck him: 'Non sumus in ullius potestate, cum mors in nostrâ potestate est.' It appeared to him worth whole volumes of philosophy; he called it the whole code of courage, and was often heard to say, that the man was no republican who did not cherish in his heart the resolution of being superior to the power of all tyrants.

It was not, however, solely in the philosophy of the Stoics, that Hoche sought consolation during his imprisonment. Though he had hitherto been remarkable for temperance, he now drank to excess, and, it is said, intrigued with women, irreproachable before their confinement, who could find no better comfort. His conversation was now all levity; and he spake in *bons-mots*. There remains a curious paper, written at this time, in which he has delineated with some humour the characters of his fellow-prisoners.

The fall of Robespierre restored Hoche to liberty; and, after some delay, he obtained a command in La Vendée. This department, in which so many generals had failed of success, was to Hoche a new theatre of glory. He did not employ terror alone against the insurgents: he protected the peasants, he conciliated their regard, he hunted down Charette, he conquered at Quiberon, and restored La Vendée to tranquillity and to the republic.

The expedition to Ireland, the favourite project of Hoche, was at length undertaken. A little while before he sailed, an attempt was made at Rennes to assassinate him; but the pistol missed him, and the man was seized. Hoche sent money to the wife and children of the offender. The man's fate is not mentioned; but it is said, that on examination he was found to be a person of quality. The fleet failed to Ireland; but the winds preserved that kingdom, or the rebellion might have been now a revolution.

On his return, Hoche was appointed to the command of the army of the Sambre and Meuse, then disorganized and crowded with effeminate officers. He restored its discipline and spirit; he conquered at Neuwied; and his career was only stopped by intelligence of the signature of preliminaries of peace with the emperor.

That contest which terminated in the banishment of Pichegru and his associates deeply interested Hoche. He

was in the confidence of Barras, and was of opinion that the safety of the commonwealth depended upon vigorous measures. He did not long live to enjoy the success of the republican party; an illness, the effect, it is surmised, of poison, preyed upon him; and in September, 1797, to use the expressions of his biographer, 'he retired from life, regretted and honoured by his friends and by the republic, and lamented also by his horse, and his dog Pitt.'

The abbé St.-Pierre requires three things to constitute a great man: 1. a great motive, or a great desire of promoting the public good; 2. great difficulties overcome, as well by the perseverance of a patient and courageous mind, as by the talents of a just and comprehensive genius, fertile in expedients; 3. great advantages procured to the public in general, or to his country in particular. The reader may judge whether general Hoche accomplished these three conditions.

The second volume contains the official correspondence of Hoche. He seems to have accommodated his style to the fashion of the times, and, when *sans-culotterie* was the order of the day, to have remembered the *blackguardisms* of the stable. But his mind was daily advancing; and, when we recollect the low station from which he rose, and his early age at his death, we may justly rank him among the greatest men whom the republic has produced.

Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire du Jacobinisme, par M. l'Abbé Barruel. Quatrième Partie. 1798.

Memoirs illustrating the History of Jacobinism, by the Abbé Barruel. Vol. IV. 8vo. De Boffe.

IN our last survey of the abbé Barruel's memoirs*, we concluded that his labours were at an end. For, although, in his third volume, after giving a history of the *illuminés*, he promised to examine how far success had attended their steps, and what share their machinations had in the revolution of France, by engendering Jacobinism, it occurred to us that the labours of professor Robison, by anticipating this part of the subject, rendered it unnecessary for the abbé to write the volume which now lies before us. In this, however, he proceeds to a detail, illustrated by copious extracts, of the origin and progress of free-masonry, evidently using the same materials that the professor employed, and following nearly the same arrangement. With this subject our readers may be presumed to be sufficiently acquainted from the professor's work, although he is by no

* See our XXIst. Vol. New Arr. p. 530.

means so acute in his observations, or so candid in his statements, as the abbé. In our account of his '*proofs of a conspiracy* *,' we offered various objections, and animadverted on his defect of evidence. The abbé, unfortunately for Mr. Robison, furnishes us with a new ground of objection. He observes, that, although they both used the same materials, the public will see a remarkable difference between their quotations. He accounts for the difference by saying, that Mr. Robison adopted the *easier*, though the more *hazardous*, of two methods of quotation, combining in one paragraph what his memory might have compiled from many.

In the present volume, we find a more authentic and perfect account of *illuminism* (to use an expression of the abbé) and its connexion with free-masonry, than the professor has given. We proceed to exhibit a sketch of its most material contents.

In the first place, M. Barruel finds every measure of the French revolution in the preceding plots. Beginning with the meeting of the states-general, he observes, that the disciples of Montesquieu and Rousseau had declared, as early as the year 1771, that 'it was only by a general assembly of national deputies, that man could be re-established in his primitive rights of equality and liberty, and the people in their imprescriptible rights of legislative sovereignty.' About the same time also, the sophists had pronounced that 'the great obstacle to the acquisition of those rights, was the ancient distinction of three orders, the clergy, nobility, and commons.' It was therefore thought expedient, as one of the primary means of effecting a revolution, to obtain a convocation of the states-general, and to abolish in those very states the distinction of orders. In the event, Necker was the chief agent of the conspirators. The abbé does not scruple to consider that minister as the principal cause of all the disasters of the revolution. In the several articles of the declaration of the rights of man, he discovers the essence of the three conspiracies. Those which declare that 'all men are equal and free, that the sovereignty resides in the nation, and that the king is only the organ of the general will,' are the same which were pronounced by Montesquieu, d'Argenson, Rousseau, and Voltaire, and by all the sophists in their *Lyceæ*, all the free-masons in their secret lodges, and all the illuminés in their dens.

In the formation of the national guards, the conspiracy proceeded exactly as it was pre-concerted. In a letter published in the second volume of these memoirs, and attributed to Montesquieu, are these words: 'What progress might we not make, if we were delivered from foreign and mer-

* See our XXIIIrd Vol. New Arr. p. 426.

cenary soldiers. A national army would declare for liberty.' The sophists, adds the abbé, made this remark thirty years ago: the conspirators had not forgotten it, and the national guards were quickly formed. In this manner, as in a book of prophecy, our author traces every branch of the revolutionary system. We shall select one example, in which he professes to give the *real motives* for the death of the king.

'The sect advances to the consummation of its mysteries. But that Louis, who was king, still exists; and the adepts had not been trained in vain, in the den of Kadosh, to trample crowns under foot, and to cut off the heads of kings. It was proper that atrocious sports should be succeeded by real vengeance. Robespierre advances: let us leave him with his executioners; he is only the wild beast let loose by the sect. It is not he that devours Louis, but the sect: in Louis himself we distinguish the victim, pursued by the sect. It is not his person that the conspirators hate; the Jacobins themselves would have loved and revered Louis XVI. if he had not been king. They made his head fall, when they destroyed the statues of the good and great Henry; there were no other titles left for them to hate. He was king; and it was requisite that whatever evinced the existence of kings, all their monuments, all their emblems, should be consigned to destruction. It was not against Louis, but against royalty, that this war of Vandalism was declared. They called Louis XVI. a tyrant; they call him so still; but they know very well in what sense they use the word. They, as well as all their sophists, pronounce every king a tyrant. They know that Louis XVI. during the nineteen years of his reign, granted many pardons, and never signed a warrant for the death of a single man; and such is not the reign of a tyrant. They know, that, when he came to the throne, he gave up to his subjects the tribute due on that event; and that he abolished, in favour of the people, the *corvées*, and the torture both with respect to convicts and suspected persons. These are not the edicts of a tyrant.' After other honourable testimonies to the character of Louis, and some quotations from the speeches of his judges, the abbé observes, that, if the chief cause of the death of that monarch is not sufficiently manifest from what has been said, we may recur to the club of sophists, in which society Condorcet expressed his confident hopes, that the time would come when the sun would shine only on freemen, and when kings and priests would exist only in history, or on the theatre. 'It is therefore not to be doubted, that Louis was put to death because he was a king; the daughter of the Cæsars perished also be-

cause she was a *queen*; Madame Elizabeth suffered, because innocence, virtue, and magnanimity, could not, in the eyes of Jacobins, atone for the crime of being the daughter of a king, and the aunt of a king; and, after all the services which the duke of Orleans had rendered to the sect, he was sacrificed, because he was of the race of kings.'

The fate of the several parties is thus briefly narrated. 'Christ has no altar in France, nor have kings a throne; those who overthrew the throne and the altar, have conspired against each other. The deists and the atheists have destroyed the catholics; and they destroy one another. The constitutionalists pursue the royalists, and the republicans chase the constitutionalists; the democrats of the republic one and indivisible, have murdered the democrats of the federal republic; the leaders of the faction of the Mountain guillotine those of the Gironde. The faction of the Mountain is divided into the parties of Hebert and Marat, of Danton and Chabot, of Cloots and Chaumette; and also into that of Robespierre, which devours them all, and is itself devoured by that of Tallien. Brissot, Gensonne, Guadet, Fauchet, Rabaud, Barbaroux, and thirty others, are condemned by Fouquier Tinville, as they condemned Louis XVI. Fouquier Tinville is himself condemned, as he condemned Brissot. Pethion and Buzot, wandering in the woods, perish with hunger, or are devoured by beasts. Perrin dies in confinement; Condorcet poisons himself; Valage and Labat stab themselves; Marat is killed by Charlotte Corday; Robespierre exists no longer; Sieyes alone remains to be the cause of fresh plagues to France. Hell, to confirm the reign of his impiety, and Heaven, to punish it, have given him, under the name of directors, five tyrants, or *pentarchs*, and a double senate.'

Our author afterwards endeavours to account for the amazing success of the French armies, and the extension of the disorganising principle to Belgium, Holland, a part of Germany, Switzerland, Savoy, Piedmont, the Milanese, and even the ecclesiastical state. This he ascribes, in part, to the valour of the troops, and their characteristic jealousy of honour in combat; but principally to the sect and its legions of emissaries, who preceded the armies. For the propagation of the new opinions, edicts or orders were sent from the chief lodge, or committee of the *Grand Orient* at Paris, to the inferior lodges in every part of Europe. The consequence was, that in Holland Paulus published his tracts on "Equality;" in England, Paine his "Rights of Man;" in Germany, Campe his "French Citizen," &c. More particularly our author gives an account of the efforts of the sect, not only in various parts of Europe, but also in

Africa, Asia, and America. In giving this information, he names the conspirators, and affords such particulars of their proceedings as evince a more than common knowledge of the subject, and clearly demonstrate that the illusion of revolutionary and meliorating principles was one of the chief engines employed to facilitate the entrance of the French armies. How far the same means have been attempted in this country, is a subject in which we are too much interested not to catch at every information; and we are the more anxious to communicate to our readers what the abbé Barruel advances on this head, because professor Robison has principally confined himself to mere assertions.

‘ When Mr. Robison declared, that there existed in England masonic lodges of *illuminés*, patriotic honour took the alarm: those who form a kind of tribunal of public opinion thought they had a right to call upon that respectable writer for his proofs. I know not what answer he gave; I only know that he ought to have said, “ When persons in authority ask me, I am ready to answer.” I should say to those who, without authority, demand my proofs, there may be circumstances that prevent me from making them public; it may be sufficient to discover them to the minister, that precautions may be taken to defeat the sect; and they may be of a nature satisfactory to the author, by a number of incidents which convince him, although he may not be able to adduce *legal* proof.

‘ I make these remarks upon the best ground, because certainly ministers have in their hands sufficient proofs, which their wisdom has not yet permitted them to publish. I make them, because Mr. Robison tells us enough to persuade us that he is well informed, when he announces the intrusion of the *illuminés* into some English and Scottish lodges, without his being obliged to point out those lodges, or without his being able to do so. But undoubtedly he did not wish to expose himself to the fate of the famous chevalier Zimmermann, who was, in a similar case, the victim of the *illuminé* Knigge, not because the latter was unjustly accused, but because the accuser had not against him one of those proofs which are called *legal*, because he could not legally prove that *Philon* and *Knigge* were two names for the same person; a circumstance which is now notorious. Let those who allow themselves to treat Mr. Robison as a calumniator, reflect that the conspirators have many ways of influencing similar trials; that it is among their laws to destroy, in the public opinion, all writers of merit whom they cannot draw into their snares; and that Mr. Robison is one of those who, on that account, are justly entitled to their hatred. I could wish that Mr. Robison had an op-

portunity of answering the charge, by publishing his proofs; and then those who now speak harshly of him, would thank him for the service rendered to his country; a zeal for which, without doubt, prevails in their hearts as well as in his, though they do not see the danger so well as he." The abbé concludes this curious apology for the professor, by informing us, that he does not mean to copy his example, but to give a part of his *own* proofs.

‘ There are in England (he says) two men, for whom, I know, the apostles of the *illuminés* have sought. The one is an honest officer of the marine, who entertains for them all the contempt of which an honest heart can be susceptible, and which his heart first felt when he found himself duped by an insinuating brother, who, under pretence of revealing the masonic mysteries, drew him into those of Weishaupt. The other is a man of merit, who might have known more, if he had not betrayed his sentiments, but whose authority will attest the truth of the following statement.

‘ Among the books which best point out the number of the lodges of the *illuminés*, even among those which the enrolling brothers give to their candidates of a certain rank, there is one called *Les Paragraphes*. In that production, we find that the adept, the great traveller, of the same name with the chevalier Zimmermann, converted to illuminism some lodges of free-masons in England: but, of five, there are two which have renounced the mysteries of Weishaupt; the three others still preserve them.

‘ A new apostle, who succeeded Zimmermann in London, came to England under the name of Dr. Ibiken, one of those fictitious names which the travelling brethren adopted according to circumstances. This doctor began with uniting himself to some Quakers; he was then received in several of the lodges, where he introduced the preparatory means, and at length completely illuminated some of the brethren. He also boasted of his success in Ireland; and pretended to foretell, that his pupils would soon see a great revolution in their pitiful free-masonry. Those to whom that language was unintelligible, told me that they comprehended it perfectly, after I had published the code of the sect. They lost sight of Dr. Ibiken, and the vigilance of the ministry obliged him to carry his mysteries to another quarter.

‘ A short time after, there appeared in England an emissary, who called himself an Alsatian, and who arrived from America under the name of Reginhard. He procured admission into some of the English lodges which were in correspondence with those of Boston. He appeared less zealous

than the other apostles; he did not even conceal his repugnance to a mission which, he said, ill agreed with his station, as he had been a chaplain in the French navy; and it was principally from him that the author of the letter which furnishes me with these details, learned the existence of illuminism on the banks of the Thames.

'Here then is sufficient proof that the *illuminés* have not suffered their emissaries to forget England. Notwithstanding the honourable exception which I made, in a former part of the work, in favour of the English lodges, I am no longer surprised to find that illuminism is received by a certain number of their adepts; and here I ought to repeat, that, in that exception, I alluded only to the species of freemasonry, which I have called *national*.'

These are the principal circumstances upon which the abbé grounds his position as to the existence of lodges of *illuminés* in this country. It is obvious that they rest, in a great measure, upon his authority; but we are not inclined to controvert them: they are at least probable, and they weigh with us the more as coming from an author who in all this laborious work has given us little reason to doubt his veracity, however we may have cause to differ from him in judgment.

The conclusion of this volume, it ought to be observed, contains some reflections on the desolating spirit of Jacobinism, and the fatal consequences with which it may yet be attended, if the people of all countries, those who have felt, and those who have only read of its effects, should not unite to restore the empire of religion, morality, and social order.

Upon the whole, we are of opinion, that the author has displayed considerable talents, great research, and a pure intention, in the composition of these memoirs. On the application, however, of the three conspiracies to the French revolution, we take the liberty of differing from the abbé. He attributes every inconsiderable event in the revolution to a pre-concerted plan. The fluctuations of parties, however, their violent contests, and other circumstances, militate against the idea of a regular plan; and the little revolutions within the great one, as well as the great one itself, seem to have arisen from more obvious causes.

That any great benefit will result from these memoirs, is not very clear. If, according to the obvious intention of the author, they expound the mysteries of the French revolution, the effect will be more a matter of curiosity than of use, unless the rulers of nations will have recourse to such means as wisdom, not a spirit of coercion, may suggest to destroy the existence of conspiracies, by attaching the people

to the government, from its sensible effects on their happiness and security.

It will not be improper to add, that the abbé has published an abridgement of these four volumes, and that translations of the third and fourth volumes have made their appearance.

Voyage de la Pérouse.

(Concluded from Vol. XXIII. p. 492.)

WE left this very respectable rival of captain Cook, stretching to the westward from the coast of Chili. On the 9th of April, he arrived at Easter Island, which is peopled by a race similar to the inhabitants of the Society Isles. This spot is infertile, and its water is scanty and brackish. The want of a copious supply of water is attributed to the deficiency of trees, though the island was once wooded. It has been remarked, that the rain, in the cleared parts of Guiana, is much less than in the woody regions; and the reason is sufficiently obvious. A difficulty however arises. Countries which have been covered with trees, when, from accident, or the imprudent activity of the early settlers, they are once disforested, can scarcely by art be made to re-produce them. Travellers see, in different parts of England, remains of vast trees, while the present productions of those parts are a dwarfish stunted race, and the plantations, though carefully guarded, are often destroyed. In Ireland the trees which defended the land from the western blasts, are destroyed, and greater mischief ensues. The winds meet no impediment, and carry, far inland, masses of sand, which impair the fertility of the ground, and render many ancient buildings (once respectable) no longer habitable. It may naturally be asked, why the land, which once produced trees, will produce them no longer. As we have no reason to believe, that vegetable or animal nature is degenerating, or that its energies are impaired, the circumstance may be attributed to changes of climate, arising from alternations of sea and land (the former encroaching on, or retiring from, the latter), or some alteration in the astronomical relations of our planet.

Easter Island was remarkable for a number of busts or statues of considerable height, formed of lava: but they are now superseded by small pyramidal heaps of stones, intended as *mausolea*.

The inhabitants of this island are considered by la Pérouse as being under no government. He thought that

he saw among them what has since become the popular idol of France, equality. This circumstance, however, is not ascertained.

The islands called, in the old Spanish charts, La Mesa, Los Majos, and La Disgraciada, were sought in vain. La Pérouse thinks, with great reason, that these were in reality the Sandwich Islands, but were placed 16 or 17 degrees farther to the east. We shall extract nothing from this work concerning the Sandwich Islands, as so many English navigators have described them. We shall only remark that la Pérouse considers captain Cook as the aggressor, in his last unfortunate skirmish, and acquits modern navigators of the reproach of having introduced the venereal disease among the islanders, while the editor, with little discrimination or enquiry, condemns them.

The first part of North America which the navigators particularly examined, was Monti Bay, regarded by the editor as the Port Mulgrave of Dixon; but Port Mulgrave is in Behring's Bay. It is strange that an editor should decidedly contradict what the officers saw. La Pérouse rested for some time in a bay, which he called Port des François. It is near Cape Fairweather, and is in many respects a good harbour, as well as a proper place for the establishment of a commercial *dépôt*. The natives possessed iron and copper, which they probably procured from the Russians, who extend their mercantile excursions to this neighbourhood.

‘The animal and vegetable productions of the country about this bay, (says la Pérouse,) resemble those of many other regions; but its appearance has no sort of comparison; and I have my doubts whether the profound valleys of the Alps and Pyrenees present views as frightful, but which are at the same time so picturesque, that they would deserve the visits of the curious were they not at the extremity of the world.

‘The primitive mountains of granite, or schistus, perpetually covered with snow, upon which are neither trees nor plants, have their foundation in the sea, and form upon the shore a kind of quay; their slope is so rapid, that, after the first two or three hundred toises, the wild goats cannot climb them; and all the gullies which separate them are immense glaciers, of which the tops cannot be discerned, while the base is washed by the sea: at a cable's length from the land there is no bottom at less than a hundred and sixty fathoms.

‘The sides of the harbour are formed by secondary mountains, the elevation of which does not exceed nine hundred toises. They are covered with pines, and over-

spread with verdure, and the snow is only seen on their summits; to me they appeared to be entirely formed of schistus, which is in the commencement of a state of decomposition; they are extremely difficult to climb, but not altogether inaccessible.

‘Nature assigns to this frightful country inhabitants who as widely differ from the people of civilised countries, as the scene I have just described differs from our cultivated plains; as rude and barbarous as their soil is rocky and barren, they inhabit this land only to destroy its population: at war with all the animals, they despise the vegetable substances which grow around them. I have seen women and children eat some raspberries and strawberries, but these are undoubtedly viands far too insipid for men, who live upon the earth like vultures in the air, or wolves and tigers in the forests.

‘Their arts are in some degree advanced, and in this respect civilisation has made considerable progress; but that which softens their ferocity, and polishes their manners, is yet in its infancy: their mode of life excluding all kind of subordination, they are continually agitated by fear or revenge; prone to anger, and easily irritated, they are almost constantly attacking each other. Exposed in the winter to the danger of perishing for want, because the chase cannot be successful, they live during the summer in the greatest abundance, as they can catch in less than an hour a sufficient quantity of fish for the support of their family; they remain idle during the rest of the day, which they pass at play; for to this amusement they are as much addicted as some of the inhabitants of our great cities. This gaming is the great source of their quarrels. If to these destructive vices they should unfortunately add a knowledge of the use of any inebriating liquor, I should not hesitate to pronounce, that this colony would be entirely annihilated.’

It is supposed that these Americans are not constant inhabitants of this district, but that they only pass the summer in it. None of their cabins seemed to be sheltered from the rain. These huts are so slight, that the whole substance and contents of them are easily carried away in a canoe. The men who were seen in this neighbourhood, pierce the cartilage of the ears and nose, to which they hang different small ornaments; they make scars on their arms and breasts, with a very keen-edged instrument, which they sharpen by passing over their teeth as over a stone; their teeth are filed close to the gums, and for this operation they use a sand stone rounded in the shape of a tongue. They use ochre, foot, and plumbago, mixed up with train oil, to paint the face and the rest of the body in a frightful manner. In their full dress, their

hair is flowing at full length, powdered, and plaited with the down of sea birds; this is their greatest luxury, and is perhaps reserved only to the chiefs of a family; their shoulders are covered with a simple skin; the rest of the body is absolutely naked, except the head, which is generally covered with a little straw hat, very skilfully plaited; but they sometimes place on their heads two horned bonnets of eagles' feathers, and even whole heads of bears, in which they fix a wooden scull-cap. In wearing these head-dresses, their principal object is to render themselves frightful, for the purpose of keeping their enemies in awe.

'Some Indians had entire shirts of otter's skin, and the common dress of a great chief was a shirt of a tanned skin of the elk, bordered with a fringe of the hoofs of deer and beaks of birds, which, when they dance, imitate the noise of a kind of bell. This dress is very well known among the savages of Canada, and other nations which inhabit the eastern parts of America.

'I never saw any tatooing but on the arms of a few women, who are addicted to a custom which renders them hideous, and which I could scarcely have believed, had I not been a witness to it. All of them, without exception, have the lower lip slit at the root of the gums, the whole width of the mouth; and they wear a kind of wooden bowl without handles, resting against the gums, to which this lower cut lip serves for a support, so that the lower part of the mouth projects two or three inches.'

In this bay, two boats were lost amidst the breakers, with twenty-one persons on board. A cenotaph was erected by the survivors, in honour of their unfortunate friends.

The Strait of Fuca, and the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, are disbelieved by la Pérouse, and treated with ridicule by the editor. It appears, however, that they exist, though without leading to the expected consequence, the union of the Pacific with the Atlantic. It is creditable to the judgment of our navigator, that he supposed he had been coasting only a chain of islands, as far as 54° N. L. In reality, he was to the west of King George's Archipelago; and captain Vancouver examined various channels more than 3° of longitude to the east of the most eastern situation of the French voyagers.

La Pérouse describes Monterey nearly as captain Vancouver has done. He speaks of the natives, however, as more stupid, and as kept in subjection by more rigorous punishments, than from the account of the English navigator we had reason to suppose. They are indeed children, and to have taught them the rights of man, or to

have made them legislators, as la Pérouse (or perhaps the editor) seems to have wished, would be an attempt trifling and impracticable. More art is employed in the conversion and management of these Americans than captain Vancouver suspected: they are taught, it seems, that the priests have an immediate and a continual communication with the Almighty himself.

In this part of the work, la Pérouse speaks of the astronomical observations, on the accuracy of which, he thinks, navigators may depend. He examines the sources of error in these observations; and they appear to be inconsiderable. M. Berthoud's time-piece seems to have been very accurate in its course, and more regular than any of those which captain Vancouver carried with him.

In their voyage from Monterey across the Pacific, the French made a fruitless search for various islands which they had seen in charts. The discovery of a new island, to which they gave the name of Necker, is scarcely worthy of mention, as it is a small barren rock. At length, they reached Macao, whence they hastened to the Philippines. The metropolis of the principal island of this groupe is thus described.

'The city of Manilla, with its suburbs, is very considerable; its population is estimated at thirty-eight thousand souls, among which there are not more than a thousand or twelve hundred Spaniards, the rest being Mulattoes, Chinese, or Indians, who cultivate all the arts, and carry on every species of industry. The poorest of the Spanish families have one or more carriages: two very fine horses cost thirty piastres; the board and wages of a coachman are six piastres a month: thus there is not any country where the expence of a coach is deemed more necessary, and is at the same time less weighty. The neighbourhood of Manilla is delightful; a beautiful river flows by it, branching into different channels, the two principal of which lead to that famous lagune, or lake of Bahia, which is seven leagues within the country, bordered by more than a hundred Indian villages, situate in the midst of a highly fertile territory.

'Manilla lies at the mouth of a river, which is navigable as far as the lake from which it derives its source, and is perhaps the most delightfully situate of any city in the world. All the necessaries of life are found there in the greatest abundance, and at a reasonable rate of purchase; but the clothes, manufactures, and furniture of Europe, bear an excessive price.'

The natural beauty and fertility of this groupe of islands are unfortunately counter-balanced by the errors of go-

vernment, by regulations the most impolitic, and impositions the most oppressive. An hostile attempt, it is supposed by la Pérouse, would be assisted by a general insurrection of the inhabitants, and perhaps the boasted courage of the troops would not make a very powerful resistance.

From the Philippines the French steered towards Formosa, and the Likeu or Liqueo Islands. In this course they met with soundings, suddenly and greatly variable, but with no banks or shallows that are particularly dangerous. The largest of the Liqueo Islands, it is observed, might become an advantageous commercial *depôt*. We are indeed surprised, that, as the trade of sea-otter skins is now of importance, some convenient situation has not been chosen to which the ships might bring their peltry, and from which it might be easily carried to the neighbouring countries, where it is deemed so valuable. If the accounts of the enterprising Benyowski may be credited, and in this respect he is supported by the narratives of other travellers, the chiefs of those islands are not likely to oppose such an attempt; and the Chinese would not be able to dispossess a powerful nation which should aim at such an establishment.

Proceeding to the northward, la Pérouse approached the island of Quelpaert, to the south of Corea: its appearance he describes as very attractive; but, as those who had been shipwrecked on its coasts had been detained in slavery, he did not venture to send a boat to the shore. He now directed his course to the south-west point of Nippon, as captain King had examined its north-east cape. About 20 leagues from Corea, he discovered an island to which he gave the name of Dagelet. It is well wooded; and the Coreans seem occasionally to frequent it for the purpose of building boats. A remarkable meteorological observation, in this course, we shall select.

‘ This day, (the 26th of May, 1787,) was one of the finest in our whole voyage, as well as most interesting, from the bearings we had taken of an extent of coast of more than thirty leagues. Notwithstanding this fine weather, the barometer fell to twenty-seven inches ten lines; but, as it had several times given us false indications, we continued our course along the coast, which we distinguished by the light of the moon till midnight; the wind then veered from south to north with considerable violence, without any cloud’s announcing this sudden shift; the sky was clear and serene, but it became very black, and I was obliged to stand off shore, to prevent my being embayed by the easterly winds. Though the clouds had not given us previous notice of this change, we had a warning which we did not understand, and which it is not,

perhaps, easy to explain: the men looking out at the mast-head called down to us, that they felt burning vapours similar to those of the mouth of an oven, which passed like puffs of wind, and occurred every half minute. All the officers went to the mast-head, and experienced the same heats. The temperature was at this time 14° upon deck; we sent up a thermometer to the topmast cross-trees, and it rose to 20° ; nevertheless the puffs of heat passed away very rapidly, and at intervals the temperature of the air did not differ from that of the level of the sea.'

In passing near the Japanese coasts, our navigator made as accurate observations as foggy weather would allow. After a survey of Jootsi-sima, a small but populous island, he crossed over to the Asiatic continent. While he was sailing near Tartary, he witnessed a striking illusion: we will quote his account of it; and many of our readers will probably recollect a similar one, which was lately observed on our own coasts.

'At four o'clock in the afternoon the thickest fog was succeeded by the finest sky; we discovered the continent, which extended from west by south to north by east, and a little afterwards, in the south, an extensive land, which seemed to join Tartary on the west, not leaving between it and the continent an opening of 15° . We distinguished mountains, ravines, and at length every particular object on shore, without being able to conceive how we had entered into this strait, which, we concluded, could be no other than that of Tesloy. In this situation, I thought it necessary to steer to the south-east; but these mountains and ravines very soon disappeared. The most extraordinary fog-bank I had ever seen had occasioned our error; we saw it dissipated; its forms, its tints were carried away and lost in the region of clouds, and we had still day enough left to take off from our minds every degree of uncertainty, as to the non-existence of this fantastical land. I stood on during the whole night over the space of sea which it had appeared to occupy, and at day-break there was nothing before our eyes.'

In his progress along the coast of Tartary, la Pérouse met with a bay, which he named the Bay of Ternai, about $45^{\circ} 13'$ north latitude.

'Five small creeks, similar to the sides of a regular polygon, form the outline of this roadstead; these are separated from each other by hills, which are covered to the summit with trees. Never did France, in the freshest spring, offer gradations of colour of so varied and strong a green; and

though we had not seen, since we began to run along the coast, either a single fire or canoe, we could not imagine that a country which is so near to China, and apparently so fertile, should be entirely uninhabited. Before our boats had reached the land, our glasses were turned towards the shore; but we saw only bears and stags, which passed very quietly along. Every one's impatience to land was increased by this sight; arms were gotten ready with as much activity as if we were about to defend ourselves against an enemy; and, amidst these dispositions, the sailors, who were employed in fishing, had, with their lines, already caught ten or twelve cod-fish. The inhabitants of cities can with difficulty form a conception of the sensations experienced by sailors, on the prospect of a plentiful fishery; fresh provision is the want of all men, and even that which is least savoury is far more wholesome than the best preserved salt meat. I gave instant orders to lock up the salt provision, and to take care of it for less fortunate periods. I caused casks to be prepared, in order to be filled with fresh and limpid water, a rivulet of which flowed into every creek. I sent into the meadows to search for pot-herbs; and an immense quantity of small onions, sorrel, and celery, were found. The plants which grow in our climates carpeted the whole soil, but they were stronger and of a deeper green; the greater part were in flower. Roses, red and yellow lilies, lilies of the valley, and all our meadow flowers in general, were met with at every step. Pine trees covered the tops of the mountains; oaks began only half way down, and diminished in strength and size, in proportion as they came nearer the sea; the banks of the rivers and rivulets were bordered with willow, birch, and maple trees, and on the skirts of the forests we saw apple and medlar trees in flower, with clumps of hazel-nut trees, the fruit of which already made its appearance.

Approaching the opposite shore, which our navigators supposed might be the Isle of Jessô, they found that of Tchoka, or Segalien, which almost meets the continent, about latitude 52°. Here they landed, and found a race of inhabitants poor, but in some degree civilised, and a country resembling in general the Tartarian coast. The inhabitants seemed intelligent. They could distinguish objects of utility from those of curiosity and shew; and they practised some of the necessary arts. Little trade can be carried on with them, for they have scarcely any commodities to offer in exchange.

Returning to the southward, the French stopped in the bay of Castries, on the coast of Tartary. The inhabitants appeared to unite the uncleanness, ignorance, and super-

stitution of the Laplanders and Kamtschadals. Their government is said to be patriarchal. Their height seldom reaches five feet, their bodies are lank, their voices weak, their cheek-bones high, their eyes small, and diagonally placed; they have a flat nose, wide mouth, beardless chin, and olive complexion. They cultivate no plants, but trust to the spontaneous productions of nature; and, for their winter's store, dry the bulbous roots of the yellow lily. Some of the islands of this bay are volcanic.

From this bay, la Pérouse steered to the south-east, and at last doubled the southern point of Segalien, thus establishing the existence and situation of this island, called Oku Jesso, distinct from that of Chicha, or lower Jesso.

'The point above-mentioned, to which I gave the name of Cape Crillon, is situate in $45^{\circ} 57'$ north latitude, and $140^{\circ} 34'$ east longitude; it terminates this island, which from north to south is one of the most extensive in the whole world, separated from Tartary by a channel, ending to the northward in sand-banks, between which there is no passage for ships, but where in all probability there remains some inlet for canoes, between the numerous beds of sea-weed which obstruct the strait. This same island is Oku-Jesso. Chicha Island, which was abreast of us, divided by a channel of twelve leagues from that of Segalien, and from Japan by the strait of Sangaar, is the Jesso of the Japanese, and extends to the south as far as the strait of Sangaar. The chain of the Kurile Islands is considerably more to the eastward; and, with Jesso and Oku-Jesso, they form a second sea, which communicates with that of Ochotsk, and from which there is no penetrating to the coast of Tartary, but by the strait which we had just discovered in $45^{\circ} 40'$, or that of Sangaar, after having sailed out between the Kuriles. This point of geography, the most important of all those left by modern navigators to be resolved by their successors, cost us much fatigue, and many precautions were necessary, because the fogs rendered this navigation extremely difficult.'

The run to Kamschatka furnishes no novelty; and to the account of that country we may apply a similar observation. A spirited sketch is given of the isles of the Navigators, which were more accurately examined by la Pérouse, than they had been by Bougainville, the original discoverer. From a few passages, the reader may judge of the beauty of these islands.

'I visited a charming village (in the island of Maouna,) situated in the midst of a wood, or rather of an orchard, all the trees of which were laden with fruit. The houses

were placed upon the circumference of a circle, of about a hundred and fifty toises in diameter, the interior forming a vast open space, covered with the most beautiful verdure, and shaded by trees, which kept the air delightfully cool. Women, children, and old men accompanied me, and invited me into their houses. They spread the finest and freshest mats upon a floor formed of little chosen pebbles, and raised about two feet above the ground, in order to guard against the humidity. I went into the handsomest of these huts, which probably belonged to a chief; and great was my surprise, to see a large cabinet of lattice-work, as well executed as any of those in the environs of Paris.'

'This charming country combines the advantages of a soil fruitful without culture, and of a climate which renders clothing unnecessary. The trees that produce the bread-fruit, the cocoa-nut, the banana, the guava, and the orange, hold out to these fortunate people an abundance of wholesome food; while the fowls, hogs, and dogs, which live upon the surplus of these fruits, afford them an agreeable variety of viands. They were so rich, and had so few wants, that they disdained our instruments of iron and our cloth, and asked only for beads. Abounding in real blessings, they were desirous of obtaining superfluities alone.

'These islands are exceedingly fertile, and I should suppose, that their population is very considerable. The eastern ones, Opoun, Leoné, and Fanfoué, are small, especially the two last, which are about five miles in circumference; but Maouna, Oyolava, and Pola, may be numbered among the largest and most beautiful islands of the South Sea. The accounts of the different navigators present no picture to the imagination at all comparable to the beauty and immense extent of the village which we saw on the north coast of Oyolava.'

A great misfortune befel the voyagers in Maouna. The savages, unprovoked, attacked a small party; and M. de Langle, captain of the *Astrolabe*, fell on the occasion, with his scientific friend Lamanon, and ten other individuals.

Early in the year 1788, *la Pérouse* arrived on the coast of New Holland; but, soon after his departure from Botany-bay, he probably met with that fate to which navigators are constantly exposed.

Of the plates which accompany this work, some notice must be taken. A print of *la Pérouse* is prefixed. The principal groupe in the vignette of the title, seemingly represents the Genius of America, attended by her western inhabitants, dictating to History the course of the voyagers. A map of the world, on Mercator's projection, follows; but, as its date is 1788, many of the later discoveries cannot

have a place in it. This, and the other maps and charts, are executed with elegance and accuracy.

The delineation of the island of St. Catharine is bold, rather than elegant. A chart of the South Sea, a plan of the Bay of Conception, and a representation of the dresses of the inhabitants of Conception, follow.

The 6th, 7th, 8th, and 9th plates represent the liane of Chili. The term is applied to every climbing or voluble plant; but this is a new genus of the *diccia hexandria* of Linnæus.

Easter Island and Cook's Bay, with the monuments, &c. are the subjects of the 10th, 11th, and 12th plates. Charts of the Sandwich Islands are afterwards given.

The great object of the voyage being the examination of the western coast of America, the charts relative to that part are numerous; but we need not particularise them.

A chart of the isle of Necker, and the bank of the French frigates (a shoal in the Pacific, perhaps the elements of a new island); a general chart of the discoveries in the seas of India and Japan; views of Macao and Cavite, a plate descriptive of the dresses of the inhabitants of Manilla, plans of the bays of Ternai and Castries, views of the barks and canoes of various countries, and many other representations, illustrate and embellish the work. These volumes, upon the whole, do credit to the new republic; and the work claims a distinguished rank among the publications of science.

C. H. Persoonii Commentatio de Fungis Clavæformibus, sistens Specierum, huc usque notarum, Descriptiones, cum Differentiis specificis, necnon Auctorum Synonymis. Accedunt Tabulæ IV colore fucatæ. Lipsiæ. 1797.

An Essay on the Club-formed Mushrooms, stating the Differences of all the known Species, and particularising the Synonyms; accompanied with four coloured Engravings. 8vo. Imported by Escher.

THE essay now re-published deserves great commendation; but it is necessary to explain its object more particularly.

The *clavariæ* are the long, round, or branched mushrooms. They seem to have been noticed by the early botanists, by whom they were called *digitelli*, *barba caprina*, &c. By subsequent writers they were denominated *clavariæ*; and, under this appellation, Linnæus, who formed the genera of his *cryptogamia* from external habit, included them in one genus. But, when the fructification of

mushrooms was ascertained, it was found that they would more properly constitute a tribe, which M. Perfoon has now divided into ten clearly discriminated genera.

The *sphæria*, which forms the first genus, resembles the more perfect vegetables in its seminiferous capsules. The *xylariæ*, though separated from the *sphæriæ* by Schrank, are arranged under this genus, on account of the situation of the capsules, and their gelatinous fluid.

The *hericia* are arranged with this tribe, on account of their form, and the absence of a pileus: they are divided into two families, as they are ramose or simple.

Of the *merulium*, our author has given few species, and these are of a conoid form. The pileus, distinguished by a barren discus, joins with the stalk.

In the *leotia* the pileus is so distinct as to render it surprising that the *l. lubrica* should ever be deemed *clavaria*. It rather resembles the *helvellæ*, from which, however, it is distinguished by the fleshy, equal pileus.

The *spathularia*, of which there is only one species, resembles the *helvellæ* in the membranaceous pileus, and the elasticity with which the seeds are separated. The compressed figure, however, of the former, and its connection with the stalk, having the resemblance of a *spatha*, occasioned the separation.

The *geoglossum*, we think, might be united with the last-mentioned genus.

The genus *clavaria*, strictly so called, has several divisions; 1. the *ramosæ*, again divided according to the greater or less thickness of the trunk; 2. the *cespitosæ*, some of which have a distinct sub-pellucid stipes, others an homogeneous superficies; 3. the *solitariae*, which are of a conoid form. All the species are fleshy and rigid, with a fertile membrane reaching to the point: they grow in woody places, attached sometimes to the trunks and branches of trees, sometimes to dead leaves. Many of them are probably esculent.

The *merismata* are divided into those which have erect and distinct branches, and such as have irregular branches, either membranous or tubercular. These mostly rest on the ground, and are connected with bodies in the neighbourhood: many of them exhale a foetid smell.

The *acrospermum* has been united with the *tremellæ* by many authors. The elongated and raised form, and the smooth surface, chiefly distinguish the former from the latter. The species of this genus are either simple or branched.

The *isaria* contains various species, which are of the smallest kind, in their substance dry, generally white,

sometimes with a smooth, sometimes with a farinaceous surface. The farina, viewed through a microscope, appears to consist of threads connecting the branches, whence the isaria appears to have some affinity with the genus botrytis. These fungi often grow on putrid substances; sometimes on other fungi, particularly the larger agarics; and some are parasitic plants on the chrysalides of insects.

It is an ingenious suggestion of this writer, that the curious appearances of the grasshopper, on that account called *lanata*, may be fungi of this genus, though generally considered as part of the animal. The appendix caudiformis, as it is called, is rarely found; and our author advises naturalists, who can pursue the animal in its native haunts of South America and India, to examine whether it occurs in the living insect. In one species from the museum of M. Blumenbach, it appeared of a very tender fragile substance, greatly resembling a fungus.

We have thus given the outline of our author's plan. The minute specific distinctions we cannot point out with advantage in an article of this kind; but we highly commend their accuracy, and would advise the scientific botanist to examine the publication with care.

The drawings of the plates are accurate; and they are well coloured. They chiefly contain the species of the numerous genus clavaria, though a few others are added.

Tentamen Dispositionis Methodicæ Fungorum in Classes, Ordines, Genera, et Familias, cum Supplemento adjecto, Auctore C. H. Persoon. Lipsiæ. 1797.

An Essay towards a Methodical Distribution of Mushrooms into Classes, Orders, Genera, and Families, with a Supplement. 8vo. Imported by Escher.

IN this system, the fungi are arranged according to the form, situation, proportion, and substance of their different parts. The classes are two, entitled angiothecium and gymnothecium. The former contains those fungi in which the receptaculum is shut, having, within, cells not conspicuous, or being filled with a spermatie dust. The second contains those in which the receptaculum is open, with cells in particular parts, covered with a seminiferous fluid or dew.

The orders of the first class are, 1. sclerocarpum, where the covering is hard and tough, containing a gelatinous substance; 2. dermatocarpum, in which the receptacle is chiefly membranaceous, filled with threads and powder; 3. sarcocarpum, of which the covering is fleshy and solid.

The first order of the second class is the sarcothecium, the receptacle of which contains solid fleshy vesicles, unconnected with it. The other orders are lithothecium, the cells of which are dissolved in a viscid fluid; hymenothecium, &c.

To mention the genera would be tedious. It will be sufficient to observe that M. Perfoon's arrangement is clear and comprehensive.

Défense de L'Ordre Social contre les Principes de la Révolution Française. Par M. L'Abbé D. V. V. G. de L. Londres. 1798.

Vindication of Social Order against the Principles of the French Revolution. 8vo. Dulau.

THIS work is divided into fourteen chapters, in which the author considers, at some length, the subjects of civil society and government, of liberty and equality, the sovereignty of the people, religion, and other topics.

In the discussion of these points, we find many truths displayed in an agreeable manner. We also observe some disputable positions in which we do not disagree with the writer: for instance, we readily admit, that religion is essential to the welfare of a nation; and the advantages of certain establishments are stated very convincingly to us, while we can make every allowance for the abuses that are inseparable from all human institutions. It is remarked by our author, that, in the whole history of empires, there is no revolution which can be compared with that of France. Others were only momentary and local convulsions which terminated in a transfer of power from one party or faction to another, or at most in a change of the form of government. Foreigners took no interest in them, except as far as they might be connected with the leaders of either party; and, whatever was their issue, the troubles of one nation did not endanger the constitution of every other. This is true; but what follows is not correct. 'Without any provocation on the part of government, without pretences, without visible chiefs, in the midst of profound peace, and under a humane, virtuous, and beloved prince, a kingdom was overturned by the sole force of opinion.' There certainly were provocations on the part of government, and well-founded pretences for a change of some kind. This, however, is a point which we need not discuss at present. Let us rather attend to those sentiments of our author, which unfold his plan of remedy for France, and for every country endangered by France.

The revolution of September, 1797, (when the representatives of the people were banished by the successful party, without the form of a trial,) was, in the opinion of our author, necessary to convince the French that, in popular states, it is always a faction which governs, rather than the people, or the law. As affairs now stand, France has no alternative but the tyranny of the directory, or the legitimate authority of the king. The republic is at an end. The people will have it no longer. They reject with firmness all republican institutions. They are deaf to the reiterated complaints and proclamations of the directory, and the administrative body. They may, perhaps, yield to force; but their aversion to the republic will be increased by the respect which they are obliged to pay to it. The directory will no longer acknowledge the constitution of 1795, or any other in which the people have an influence. The despots know that the same public opinion which chose so many of their enemies into the councils, at the elections in 1797, will not fail to produce the same effect hereafter.

Similar in its origin to the English republic, that of France will resemble it in its end. After the death of Cromwell, England, equally weary of parliamentary anarchy and protectoral tyranny, looked for no peace but in placing on the throne the son of the beheaded monarch. The directorial body, which has coerced the legislature, destroyed the national representation, and robbed the people of their constitutional rights, is the Cromwell of the French republic. This directory will fall; and with it all the rest of the republic, its denominations and forms, will disappear. The extent of France, its population, its continental position, and its connection with the other nations of Europe, will, still less than in England, procure peace or tranquillity by any other means than the re-establishment of royalty. Monarchical government is the chief restorative for all nations exhausted by civil discord.

In whatever manner the principles of the revolution may be modified, we can never expect domestic peace. The French republic will always be convulsed by irreconcilable parties. It will be the object of the reigning faction to destroy the sovereignty of the people, and the right of insurrection; and the party in opposition will not cease to rouse these principles in order to gain possession of power. If, in a society composed of such discordant elements, there should be a state of repose, it must be the repose of dejection and despair. It will be the peace which tyrants give. '*Ubi solitudinem faciunt, (says Tacitus,) pacem appellant.*' Robespierre, when he had decimated

the convention, and the triumvirs after destroying the legislative body, boasted that they had given peace to France.

While the present government subsists, France cannot expect peace with foreign nations. A powerful republic, however wisely constituted and firmly consolidated, cannot preserve internal peace, but by external war. The Roman senate knew no other means of preventing or quelling sedition than the proposal of war; and, when Rome had no more enemies to combat, it fell by its own hands. It is not merely as a republic, however, that France is condemned to perpetual warfare. The avowed principles and interest of the governing party, place her in a state of permanent war with all the nations in the world. The French republic considers itself as called to extend, by force of arms, the empire of liberty and philosophy, as Mohammed affected to believe that he had been sent from heaven to propagate the true religion; and even the Moslem fanaticism was not more ardent or formidable than that of the Jacobins. We need not employ conjecture upon the views of the French government; they have been unfolded to all Europe. The speeches and messages of the directory, of the ministers and ambassadors of France, are so many manifestoes issued against all sovereigns, and all governments. Enmity is declared by the directory against every nation that will not receive a constitution detested in the country in which it was first tried.

Besides the influence of principles and of fanaticism, let us consider the interest of the chiefs. Every thing shows that the members of the directory are not desirous of peace. They have frequently had it in their power to conclude a war more disastrous to victorious France, than to its enemies. But they never take measures for promoting a general peace; and they consented to separate treaties, only with a view of deceiving certain powers, and of furnishing themselves with means for the destruction of those powers. To the directory war is necessary. It affords pretences for confiscations and revolutionary measures, and diverts the people from inquiries into their real situation.

After additional remarks on this subject, the defender of social order returns to his favourite panacea, the restoration of monarchy; and, as he seems to be of opinion that such an event is not very distant, he prepares for it by pointing out the person of the monarch. 'I have observed before, with Montesquieu, that hereditary right is an institution in favour of the people, rather than of the reigning family. The good which it produces, by preventing the troubles incident to elective governments, is more than a balance to the evil that may be occasioned by the hereditary

succession of bad princes. What monsters were the first successors of Augustus! a Tiberius, a Caligula, a Claudius, a Nero! But, as birth or adoption gave them a right recognised by the people, the empire, under these odious princes, was not torn by civil wars; and, when we reflect on the shocking disorders which attended the elections of Galba, Otho, Vitellius, and Vespasian, we are tempted to consider the death of Nero as a public calamity.' Under this head our author instances the change of succession made in England, in 1688; and he observes, that, although the English excluded the posterity of the Stuarts, they were convinced of the necessity of preserving hereditary right. He thus proceeds: 'Under Charles VII. and Henry IV. France was saved by hereditary right, and still Providence has preserved, and points out to France, a saviour in the person of Louis XVIII. who, to the right of birth, unites all that can give splendor and virtue to an elective crown. Let us not doubt that the force of events, the ascendancy of reason, the voice of interest, will bring back the French to the government of their fathers. What do I say? The directors themselves inform all Europe, that already the national wish is extended to the lawful king.'

These brief extracts will afford an idea of the author's mode of reasoning upon topics connected with the revolution of his country. That he sometimes argues sensibly cannot be denied; but his prejudices in favour of the *ancien régime* are too strong to allow him to be impartial, and they sometimes occasion a blindness to facts, which we regret in a writer who has certainly some claims to praise. In his extreme fondness for the monarchy, he asserts, that, 'in France, Calvinism enjoyed all the toleration which the rights of conscience required, and the good of the state permitted. The rigorous edicts of Louis XIV. were mollified by the jurisprudence of parliaments; and the members of that restless sect were not persecuted.' Has our author forgotten the revocation of the edict of Nantes, and the numerous persecutions of protestants in different periods of the French history?

Les Vœux Téméraires, ou L'Enthousiasme, par Madame de Genlis, Auteur de Theatre d'Education, d'Adèle et Theodore, &c. Hambourg. 1798.

Rash Vows, or Enthusiasm. By Madame de Genlis, Authoress of the Theatre of Education, Adela and Theodore, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Imported by L'Homme.

IN the dedication, the writer does not scruple to call this work the most moral novel in the language, and perhaps the

only one which all young persons might be permitted to read. It has been her aim to enforce the opinion, that, without wisdom and moderation, sensibility is only a fatal gift; and that, without reason, virtue itself, losing its noble character, and rejecting the invariable principles which ought to direct it, acts with the imprudence and impetuosity of the blindest passions, and, entangling itself in devious and perilous ways, becomes, sooner or later, the victim of its own rashness. A sketch of the novel may thus be given.

The world envied Sainville: he was of illustrious birth, possessed ample riches, and was universally admired and loved for his talents and disposition; but he was not happy: his heart wanted an object: even Paris became insipid to him, and he retired, with the baron de Verceil, to his paternal seat in Languedoc.

Curiosity first roused him from the listlessness of *ennui*. An English lady had for some months resided on his estate; but she avoided society; and, in her walks, a veil concealed her face. The baron's romantic imagination immediately conceived her to be beautiful; but Sainville had become cynical, and unwillingly suffered himself to be interested by the *incognita*. He met her at church, and presented the holy water to her; as she dipped her finger in it, she displayed a hand and arm, delicately beautiful; and Sainville was convinced that she was young. The malicious surmises of the women who did not know her, the interesting account given of her by her physician, and, above all, her attention to the wants of the poor, at length excited his curiosity. He went to see her; but the servant who announced monsieur le marquis, was informed that she saw no company; and Sainville thought that, though she might be interesting, she certainly was not well-bred.

This mysterious lady had a little girl with her, the subject of scandalous suspicions. Sainville met both in his walks, and found the child to be the daughter of his nurse. Thus introduced, by accident, he heard the voice of the lady; but the veil was still down, and his curiosity was increased, not satisfied. As she was accustomed to walk by moon-light in the garden, the baron and Sainville secreted themselves where they might see her: she appeared unveiled, and nothing could be more beautiful than Constance. She sang, and Sainville lamented his ignorance of the English language.

In the mean time, Constance furnished conversation for the country. The intendant of the province requested to speak with Sainville in private. "When they were alone, the intendant said, "I wish to ask you for some account of this foreign lady who lives in your neighbourhood."

“What has been mentioned of her?” said the marquis.—“A thousand extraordinary things have been said,” replied the intendant—“and it is particularly affirmed that she is paid by the English government as a spy.”—“A spy?”—“Yes; this idea is founded upon the extreme curiosity that she discovered with regard to our manufactures, in all the towns through which she passed. I am certain that she made *memoranda* of whatever she saw; and this circumstance, added to the mystery of her conduct, has occasioned such suspicions of her, that the minister has written to me, to acquire information upon the subject. So strange an account has been given of her at Versailles, that, if we were at war with England, she would be secured by a *lettre-de-cachet*.”—“Admirable! to shut up a young woman in the Bastille, because she loves the arts and retirement, may be a very prudent action in time of war; but, as we are now in perfect peace, what have we to fear?”—“At all times, you must allow, the secrets of our manufactures are of great importance to our commerce.” The intendant, who had not an enlarged understanding, made this remark in a tone of such sagacious folly, that Sainville could not avoid smiling contemptuously.—“Monsieur intendant, (said he) you may remove the apprehensions of the minister, by assuring him that this lady is highly respectable, notwithstanding her taste for manufactures and retirement, and that I will answer for her, though I have not the honour of knowing her personally, and though she has refused to receive my visits. But I know who she is; and I can venture to affirm, that there exists no woman more entitled to the protection of government, and to the esteem of all.”—To preserve Constance from an absurd persecution, Sainville was guilty of a slight falsehood, in saying that she was not unknown to him; but his contemptuous manner, exciting the anger of the intendant, gave him not a more favourable disposition towards Constance: on the contrary, it changed a trifling prepossession into aversion. That officer now wrote to the minister, declaring that Constance was an intriguing adventurer, and that Sainville protected her, because he was her lover.

Accident soon procured the marquis a more intimate acquaintance with Constance. He rescued her from robbers, from one of whom he received a wound. She assisted the baron in removing him; and it was to her house that he was conveyed. From this time he saw her frequently; and every circumstance tended to strengthen his affection for her. To repress his love, she communicated to him her history.

The history of Constance, now known as lady Claren-

don, is long and melancholy. We will not injure so interesting a tale by attempting to abridge it. The slave of her feelings, and the victim of treachery, she had been exposed to the suspicions of her husband, and was at last separated from him. Circumstances put it in her power to vindicate herself completely to his satisfaction: but lord Clarendon did not long survive the reconciliation; and the lady resolved to abandon a country where her character was traduced, and all her actions and motives were studiously misrepresented. She distributed among his relatives the property which he had left to her, and departed from London.

‘The ashes of lord Clarendon (said his widow), transported to the burying-place of his ancestors, reposed at a little distance from the walls of London, in a tomb which I had ordered to be erected; I went to see this monument, and arrived before the break of day. I had previously informed the sexton of the church: he opened the door to me, and I entered alone into the gloomy and mournful place. The melancholy light of a lamp guided me; I perceived the monument which inclosed all that was dear to me!—I threw myself prostrate upon the marble—it was then that I wished to consult my heart.—“O thou for whom I cherished a love which I thought unequalled, am I (I cried) still worthy of that perfect esteem which was thy last feeling towards me? All the sacrifices which I have made to thy memory ought, I think, to solace this unfortunate heart. I may still live in the world, and appear with splendour; but can empty praise or frivolous incense make me forget what I have lost, and render supportable a slavery, a constraint, which harassed me formerly even in the days of my happiness?”—Here I paused, and, in silence, interrogated my heart, penetrating into its deepest recesses. As I developed my secret sentiments, the terror which had seized me dispersed like a dream: I recovered at once reason and courage; and, delivered from the vile humiliation of an injurious fear, I blushed only that I could have so mistaken myself. I no longer employed myself with any thing but the fatal object before my eyes. My imagination was heated, was exalted: it offered me the idea of a new sacrifice which I made with transport before I tore myself away from the fatal place! With the point of a knife I traced upon the tomb these words, which, by lord Selden’s care, were afterwards engraven there in letters of gold.

“I have been able to contemplate this tomb without dying; but here I deposit, here I leave all that remains to me, an odious and fatal liberty!—Yes, in this temple, consecrated by piety, do I engage myself by every thing that religion and tenderness can render inviolable, never to form

a new tie. All things change, or pass away!—If time can triumph over my grief, at least this marble must survive me, and I engrave upon it a sacred vow, never to be effaced.”

At this part of the history, Sainville let the manuscript fall upon the table, and remained motionless for some minutes: then rising impetuously, and rapidly pacing the room, he exclaimed, “No hope remains for me—none!” He now threw himself into a chair, and was for some time overpowered with grief. At length returning to the table and casting his eyes upon the manuscript, he saw the marks of the tears that he had shed abundantly in reading it. “Ah! (said he) how sweet were those tears—for then I still could hope!”

But hope does not easily abandon the heart of man; and Sainville had not the resolution to banish himself from the society of lady Clarendon. His daily and even hourly attentions, the delicacy with which he anticipated her wishes, and his endeavours to gain her esteem, gradually won her affection; and she repented of the vow by which she had bound herself. To Sainville, however, her conduct was still the same: she manifested a cordial friendship for him; and, though she sometimes involuntarily discovered her own affection, she always repressed his. He wrote to her, abandoning himself to an ungoverned passion: she knew not how to reply: suddenly she rose, saying, “Let me seek a salutary advice.”

By the side of her bed-chamber was a closet, of which she alone had the key. It was consecrated to prayer and meditation. It contained a chair, a bureau, and some shelves filled with books of piety. In this oratory was also a large picture, covered with black crape. This mysterious painting, executed by an able artist, represented the tomb of lord Clarendon: the fatal vow was traced in large characters, Constance, having received this picture on the eve of her departure from London, covered it the same day with a crape which had never since been removed. It was to this cabinet that she went to seek a refuge against her own weakness. She approached the picture, and was for a short time motionless; then, seizing the veil, she uncovered the picture. At the sight of a painting which retraced to her eyes, for the first time during four years, the monument that inclosed the ashes of lord Clarendon, she fell on her knees, and shed a torrent of tears. The remembrance of her lord alone made her tears flow. She forgot her weakness, her remorse, and Sainville himself; an imagination ardent, strong, and powerfully impressed, restored to her for some moments all the energy of an old grief and of an

extinguished feeling.—Who can conceive and explain the mutability of the human heart? She who had recently lamented with much bitterness the imprudence of her vow, now applauded herself for having traced it, read it with pride, and renewed it with enthusiasm. This illusion could not long endure; but it left at least in lady Clarendon a determination of fulfilling in all their extent the duties which she had imposed upon herself. She quitted the cabin, intent on answering the unhappy Sainville in a manner that should irrevocably take from him all hope. She passed into the parlour, and with a sigh took the pen. She wrote; but her tears soon effaced the falsehood which she traced with such difficulty. She collected all her strength; she began again; she could not find the expressions which she wanted; those which offered themselves were either too harsh or too much softened. She again reflected; but at length she became weary of employing herself, mused profoundly, and dreamed only of her love.

Her reply, and her whole conduct, were intended to deprive Sainville of all hope; and yet her affection for him was evident. Business called him to Paris; they corresponded; and, in one of her letters, lady Clarendon mentioned the possibility of his being married to another; he was offended at this hint: the society of other women only increased his love of her; and he was miserable. The minister sent him on public business to England. He visited the places where she had resided; from her servants, from her friends, he received such accounts as still raised her in his esteem; but he found her vow the subject of prints, and heard it loudly extolled. He repaired to the tomb of lord Clarendon; and, convinced that not only religious awe would prevent her from violating it, but the opinion of the world also, he returned disconsolate to France. Yet, when he saw Constance, he could not abandon hope; he made one effort to decide his fate; and, when she persisted in adhering to her vow, he suddenly departed from his home. Letters from the baron and from Constance were sent to him, and he still corresponded with them. His return was announced; but his physician intimated the alarming state of his health, and even of his intellect. This intelligence deeply affected Constance; the baron pleaded for his friend; her own heart pleaded also; and she felt it her duty to sacrifice every thing to the desire of preserving his life.

At the chateau of Sainville, Constance expected his return. Suddenly she heard the sound of rural music: at the same instant a servant entered in haste, crying out, "it is the joyful band of our villagers, preceding monsieur

le marquis!"—"Heavens! is he arrived?"—"Yes, madame, he is in the avenue." "Good God! (said the baron, looking at Constance), you are ill"—"No, (she replied), the effect of joy can never be mournful—run, my friend, to meet him." The delighted baron rapidly descended the stairs; and, on entering the court, the first object which met his sight was Sainville, enveloped in a great cloke, and alighting from a carriage. The baron threw himself into the arms of his friend; and the marquis, embracing him with a melancholy air, said, "I must speak to you immediately." The baron led him into a closet in which lady Clarendon was; then, embracing him again, said, "In what a state do you return, how pale! how thin! cruel that you are—you have been suffering, and without me!—but prepare yourself for a revolution—a happy revolution!—Constance is here."—"O Heaven! I cannot see her at this moment; hear me first."—"No—it is Constance who must be heard. I tell you, my friend, you have reached the termination of your sufferings."—"God! what do you let me suppose?—speak—what senseless hope do you conceive for me?"—"it is well-founded. Appear, Constance! come and restore life to your happy lover." Saying these words, the baron retired. A door opened suddenly; and lady Clarendon, with a timid and tottering pace, and a countenance suffused with tears, advanced towards Sainville, who stood motionless with astonishment. Extending her hand, she said, "all your sufferings and mine are at an end, if your happiness depends upon me."—"Just heaven, what do I hear? you love me! you have been able to sacrifice your scruples for me!"—"I have—love at last has conquered, or rather has annihilated, my remorse. My destiny is united to yours.—You grow pale—there is grief in your countenance—O God, what is the cause of it?" "Where am I? (cried Sainville), avoid me! abandon a wretch who no longer knows himself!"—"Great God! how wild—what a horrible transport! oh, Sainville, recover your senses, recover your reason!"—"O that it were entirely torn from me!"—"recollect Constance—Constance, who gives herself to you!"—"Oh! (replied Sainville, with a collected voice), to what a dreadful abyss have you led me step by step? But do not deceive yourself: it is compassion, and not love, that determines you."—"You destroy me (replied Constance), Ah, Sainville! when I sacrifice to you my duty and my reputation, can you misunderstand the imperious feeling which guides me!"—"At last (said Sainville), the measure is full! know then the horror of my lot! not contented with taking from me all hope, you dared to

doubt my heart. Well! a dreadful, an irrevocable vow has for ever fettered my liberty. I left you—I went to Malta—and this cross (continued he, throwing aside his cloke) will inform you of the rest!”

‘There are sentiments which cannot be described, because they are as rapid as thought, and are composed of many contrary emotions. Constance felt at once the delight of receiving, from an adored object, the most affecting proof of passion, and the grief which a sacrifice must cost her, that for ever deprived her lover of all hope of happiness. But, notwithstanding the heart-rending regret excited by love and gratitude, she felt at the same time a kind of joy in finding herself freed from the necessity of violating her first vow: it seemed to her as if an abyss had closed under her feet; and her soul, violently agitated by different emotions, blessed providence in the midst of its alarms.’

These emotions, however, were too powerful for lady Clarendon; for they occasioned a fever which proved fatal to her.

To an English reader there is something ridiculous in the idea of engraving the vow upon her husband's tomb; but this, perhaps, will not be felt by a foreigner; and, to strengthen the effect of a vow that she was so tempted to violate, publicity was necessary. We can only object to the novel as too distressing, as inflicting pain. But young readers will not object to this: they require to be strongly affected; and, to all who can find delight in imaginary distress, we recommend this production.

Die Savoyardische Familie. Riga. 1797.

The Savoyard Family. 8vo. Imported by Escher.

SOME Savoyards are driven from their residence by the irruption of the French into their country. A young lady of this family ardently loves a colonel, with whom she became acquainted, when he rescued her from the danger to which she was exposed by the intractability of a horse. The officer, in due time, addresses her in form; is accepted by her friends; is attacked on a journey by robbers, dreadfully wounded, and, on his recovery, carried by the French to the castle of Ham, in Picardy. The lady, in the mean time, is in despair: but he is wonderfully released from the place of his confinement; and the history concludes, *à l'ordinaire*, with the nuptials of the happy pair.

This piece has little merit; and we do not recommend it as worthy of translation.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

THE writers of the republic keep the press in constant employment. Original productions, translations, and new editions of old works, are lavished upon the public. Some articles, almost wholly of the first of these descriptions, we proceed to announce.

Nouveau Spectacle de la Nature, contenant des Notions claires et précises, et des Détails intéressans, &c. A New Display of Nature, involving clear and precise Notions, and interesting Details; with regard to every Object with which Mankind ought to be acquainted; by A. F. Che- vignard, 2 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1798.—From the history of the creation, the author proceeds to a description of the heavenly bodies, to an investigation of the nature of light and heat, of the changes of seasons, &c. He then gives an account of the globe that we inhabit, and mentions the changes which have taken place on the surface of the earth. He describes the chief productions of the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms; and concludes with a view of universal morality. The work may be useful, but it is not the performance of a profound philosopher.

Nouveaux Principes, &c. New Principles of Geology, by P. Bertrand.—Dissatisfied with the opinions both of ancient and modern philosophers, respecting the disputable science of geology, M. Bertrand, not without ability, combats the theories of many writers, particularly that of his countryman M. de la Metherie.

Nouvelle Mécanique des Mouvements de l'Homme et des Animaux. New Mechanism of the Motions of Men and other Animals. Carcassonne.—This is a curious work, in which M. Barthez enters into a variety of anatomical, physiological, and philosophical details and inquiries, relative to the origin and nature of all kinds of bodily motion.

La Géometrie, &c. The Geometry of the Compass. Paris.—We have here a translation of an ingenious work, from the Italian of Mascheroni.

Essai sur l'Histoire des Fourmis de la France. Essay on French Ants, by P. A. Latreille, 8vo. Brive.—This production affords a strong proof of the diligence and accuracy of the writer.

Dictionnaire des Termes Latins, &c. A Dictionary of Latin Terms used in Botany, 8vo. Paris.—This vocabulary is not sufficiently copious.

Histoire des Plantes d'Europe, &c. History of European Plants, or Elements of Practical Botany, by J. E. Gilibert, 2 vols. 12mo. Lyons.—The Linnæan mode of classification is followed by M. Gilibert; and the work, upon the whole, is well executed.

Mémoires de Paul Jones. Memoirs of Paul Jones. Paris.—We are informed, that these memoirs were written by the adventurer himself, and translated under his eye by M. André, by whom they are now published. They exhibit an air of lively frankness, and will interest many readers.

Campagnes des Français pendant la Révolution. Account of the Campaigns of the French during the Revolution, by A. Liger. Vol. I. Blois.—This volume contains only the history of the campaign of the year 1792.

Indépendance absolue, &c. The Absolute Independence of the United States of America, 8vo. Paris.—The chief object of this publication is to manifest the expediency of a complete reconciliation between the French and the Americans.

Voyages d'Antenor, &c. Travels of Antenor in Greece and in Asia, 3 vols. 8vo. Paris.—M. Lautier pretends, that this is a translation of a Greek manuscript, found amidst the ruins of Herculaneum: but that is a mere fiction. The work is an imitation of the Travels of Anacharsis, to which, though not destitute of merit, it is greatly inferior.

H O L L A N D.

Oden en Gedichten. Odes and other Poems, by Rhynvis Feith, 2 vols. 8vo. Amsterdam, 1797.—Some dramatic pieces by M. Feith have been well received; and the poems here announced will ensure him a continuance of the public regard.

G E R M A N Y.

Sittliche Gemälde. Moral Pictures, by Henning. 8vo. New Strelitz, 1798.—The reader, we think, will be amused and instructed with these representations.

Reise durch Pommern. Travels through Pomerania, 8vo. Berlin, 1798.—M. Zöllner has here given an entertaining and interesting account of a country less known than other parts of Germany.

C. D. Ilgen *Opuscula varia Philologica.* Various Philological Pieces by Ilgen, 2 vols. 8vo. 1797.—These productions are not all new to the press; for many of them had been published before. They do credit to the learning and taste of the writer.

Hermann und Dorothea. A Poem entitled Hermann and Dorothea, by Goethe. Berlin.—This is a very pleasing production, which will probably soon appear in our language, as the cultivators of German literature multiply among us.

HUNGARY.

Statistik des Königreichs Ungarn. Statistic Account of the Kingdom of Hungary, 8vo. Pest.—Professor Schwarzneger has manifested, in this volume, his intimate acquaintance with the subject of which he treats. He accurately delineates the state of the country, and exhibits a just view of the constitution, system of administration, &c.

SPAIN.

Encyclopedia Metodica, dispuesta por Orden de Materias, &c. A Methodical Encyclopædia, disposed according to the Order of the Subjects, small folio. Madrid.—This work is a translation of the French *Encyclopédie*; but it contains a variety of additions and improvements. It is supposed that about sixty volumes will complete the publication.

Memoria, &c. Memoir concerning a periodical difficulty of breathing.—The obstruction here mentioned is attributed by Dr. Franferi, probably without sufficient reason, to the influence of the moon.

ITALY.

Dionis Cassii Historiarum Romanarum Fragmenta. Fragments of the Roman History, written by Dio Cassius. 8vo. Bassano, 1798.—Morelli is the editor of these fragments, which he has extracted from a manuscript in the library of St. Mark at Venice. They are not very copious; and, as so great a part of Dio's history is lost, they will not be of much utility. Many new readings of the parts before published are added.

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Review of Public Affairs.

A REVIEW
OF
PUBLIC AFFAIRS,

FROM
the Beginning of SEPTEMBER, to the End of DECEMBER, 1798.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

FROM the original imprudence of the chief powers of Europe, in goading, harassing, and inflaming a nation which ought to have been left to itself, to work out its own revolution, the war still continues to diffuse calamity around. Not merely from the congress of Rastadt, but from the returning reflexion of different princes, we hoped that a general peace would have been by this time concluded; but our eager wishes have been disappointed, while those who deprecate a peace in the present state of France exult in the prospect of progressive hostility. The feelings of such men we do not envy; and the policy by which they are influenced we do not approve. But, as their persuasions of the insecurity of a pacification with the directory are deeply rooted, it would be useless to contest the point.

The late triumph of the British fleet in the Mediterranean has encouraged the advocates of war in their zeal for a spirited prosecution of it. That success, was highly honorable to the courage and skill of our naval officers, and the active valor of the seamen whom they commanded; and it will transmit to the latest ages, while the records of history shall subsist, the name and the glory of the gallant Nelson.

As the success to which we allude was so highly important and interesting, it may be expected that we should

trace the operations of the fleet from the commencement of the expedition. In consequence of orders from earl St. Vincent, sir Horatio Nelson sailed from Gibraltar in the spring, with three ships of the line and two frigates, to watch the motions of the French in the Mediterranean. On the 22d of May, his squadron sustained some injury from a storm, at a time when, without his knowledge, he was not many leagues distant from the fleet which was transporting Buonaparte and his army to the shores of Egypt. On the 8th of June, he was gratified with a reinforcement of ten sail of the line. For some time, he could obtain no accurate intelligence respecting the destination of the French armament; but, when he had reached the coast of Sicily, he received information of the conquest of Malta. To that island he was steering, when the news of the departure of the hostile fleet induced him to hasten towards Egypt. On the 29th, he appeared before Alexandria, to the great surprise of the governor, who had no expectation of a visit either from the English or the French. As the latter had not then arrived, our fleet cruised near Candia, returned to the Sicilian coast for a supply of water, and afterwards sailed to the Morea for intelligence. Hearing that the French had been seen steering to the south-eastward from Candia, sir Horatio resolved to re-visit the coast of Egypt; and, on the 1st of August, he had the satisfaction of beholding the fleet which he had long wished to encounter. Plans of attack, in various circumstances, he had already adjusted in the course of his voyage; and he had taken the precaution of giving ample instructions to all the captains under his command, and of explaining his own ideas in so satisfactory a manner, that it was scarcely necessary to have recourse to signals during the action. Thus (to use the words of a writer who has published a regular narrative of the proceedings of the squadron) 'much time was saved, and the attention of every captain could almost undistractedly be paid to the conduct of his own particular ship; a circumstance from which, upon this occasion, the advantages to the general service were almost incalculable'.

The French ships were at anchor in the bay of Aboukir. That of admiral Brueys had 120 guns, and above 1000 men: three had 80 guns each; and nine had only 74. They were drawn up near the shore in a strong and compact line of battle, flanked by four frigates and many gunboats, and protected in the van by a battery, planted on a small island. Their situation, therefore, was extremely advantageous for defence; but the great danger of an attack did not deter the British admiral from making the attempt.

He had as many ships of the line as the French commander, and he strengthened his line by the introduction of a ship of 50 guns; but, in approaching the enemy, he was deprived of the assistance of the *Culloden*, as it struck upon a shoal, from which it could not be extricated before the next morning. Three other vessels were hastily advancing in its rear; but the accident warned them of the peril; and they were so fortunate as to avoid the shoal.

The admiral was strongly desirous of breaking the line of the French, and surrounding a part of their fleet; and he ably executed his purpose. At sun-set the engagement commenced; and both parties fought with great spirit. While the victory was yet undecided, admiral Brueys received two wounds; and, having changed his situation, he was exposed to a fresh shot, which deprived him of life. When the action had continued for two hours, two of the French ships were captured; a third struck soon after; and the whole van was in the power of the English, who eagerly proceeded to a completion of their victory. *L'Orient*, the particular ship of the French commander, was warmly engaged with several of the hostile vessels, when an explosion indicated the danger of a conflagration. The flames made a rapid progress; and all endeavours to check their fury were ineffectual. Ganteaume, who had assumed the command, ordered the crew to quit the ship, and he himself seasonably retired; but only a small number escaped destruction, when, about four hours after the commencement of the conflict, the burning vessel blew up with a dreadful explosion.

The engagement was prosecuted at intervals till day-break; and only two of the French ships of the line, and two frigates, escaped capture or destruction*. Captain Hood, in the *Zealous*, pursued the retiring vessels; but he was soon recalled by the admiral, as none of the ships could support him in the chase.

It was not to be supposed that such a victory could be obtained without a considerable loss of lives. In the British fleet, 16 officers, and 202 seamen and marines, were killed; and 677 individuals were wounded. In the *Majestic* alone, were 50 victims, and captain Westcott fell among the rest. The French loss has been variously stated; but it appears to have been very great. With regard to the prisoners, it is mentioned by Ganteaume, in an intercepted letter, that 3100, of whom 800 were wounded, were restored by our admiral, who, leaving a part of his fleet to blockade the port of Alexandria, sailed towards Sicily.

* Nine sail of the line were taken, and one (besides *L'Orient*) was burned, her own captain setting fire to her. A frigate also was burned by her commander.

Having been wounded in the head, sir Horatio was constrained to quit the deck during the action; but (he says) 'the service suffered no loss by that event.' Captain Berry supplied his place with that valour and ability, which amply merited the praise of his commander. This officer was soon after sent with dispatches announcing the victory to which he had contributed; but, on the 18th of August, the *Leander*, a ship of 50 guns, in which he sailed, was captured by one of 74. On this occasion, the conflict was warm and obstinate; and, when captain Thompson was tried for the loss of the ship, the court-martial declared, that his defence of it was 'gallant and almost unprecedented.'

It may be thought unnecessary to observe, that the intelligence of the success on the coast of Egypt diffused extraordinary joy throughout the British dominions. Every heart glowed with exultation; and, on the fortunate Nelson and his associates, every tongue bestowed praise. Numerous addresses of congratulation were presented to his majesty: the admiral was honoured with a peerage, and rewarded with a pension; and a day was appropriated to the solemnity of a general thanksgiving.

When a new session of parliament was opened (on the 20th of November), due honour was paid, in the speech from the throne, to the signal exertions of the successful fleet. It was observed, that 'the unexampled series of our naval triumphs had received fresh splendour from the memorable and decisive action,' in which lord Nelson had 'attacked and almost totally destroyed a superior force of the enemy, strengthened by every advantage of situation.' It was added, that, 'by this great and brilliant victory,' an enterprise remarkable for its 'injustice, perfidy, and extravagance, had been turned to the confusion of its authors; and the blow thus given to the power and influence of France had afforded an opening, which, if improved by suitable exertions on the part of other powers, might lead to the general deliverance of Europe.' The resolution of the emperor of Russia to engage in the contest, and a similar determination of the grand signor, were mentioned in terms of praise; and hopes were expressed that other sovereigns would 'adopt that vigorous line of conduct which experience had proved to be alone consistent with security or honour.' In a debate produced by the motion for an address of thanks, the marquis of Lansdowne, while he joined in the tribute of applause to lord Nelson, observed, that the admiral himself would not be satisfied with his victory, if it should not be improved to the production of those advantages which, with prudent management, it was calculated to afford. It might be thought, he said, that a powerful

league ought to be formed to check the career of the French; but he was of opinion, that a league would not be very effective, unless it should be founded on disinterested principles, on principles which should supersede the mean desire of profiting in a territorial or pecuniary view by the disorders of Europe, and be pointed only to the restoration of general security. He ridiculed the hope of deriving important aid from the promised efforts of the Russians and the Turks, as the former were not *inclined*, and the latter were not *able*, to act with due vigour against the French. Other powers, he thought, were little more worthy of our association or our confidence; and it was therefore adviseable to trust more to our own strength than to any aid which we might expect from the princes and states of the continent. Our strength, however, ought not to be wasted in offensive exertions. We had less reason to dread the enemy than any nation had. Our insular situation, the great superiority of our marine, and the general spirit of the community, gave us sufficient security. In such a predicament, it would be expedient for us to stand only on the defensive, and to declare that we were ready to agree to a safe and honourable peace.—Lord Holland maintained, that it was now the best time to negotiate with the enemy; and that to evince a pacific disposition in the day of prosperity was not an humiliation, but rather an instance of magnanimity. Lord Mulgrave, however, contended, that it would be disgraceful to British spirit to follow such advice; and that a renewal of negotiation with France at the present moment would lead to a forfeiture of that superiority which we had obtained, and to a frustration of our hopes of effecting the deliverance of Europe. Lord Grenville, animated with the same zeal, recommended a vigorous perseverance in offensive hostilities as the most proper conduct that we could pursue. After the speeches of these and other peers, the address was voted without a division; and that of the commons passed in the same manner, though not without severe (and in some instances intemperate) animadversions on the conduct of the ministry from sir John Sinclair and sir Francis Burdet.

At the time of these proceedings of the legislature, the executive power, inflamed with just indignation at a recent decree of the French directory, declaring that all persons originally belonging to neutral countries, or to states in alliance with the republic, who might form a part of the crews of British vessels, should be treated as pirates, gave public notice, that, if this order should, in any instance, be carried into execution, the most vigorous retaliation would

be exercised against the subjects of France, whom the chance of war had already placed, or should hereafter place, in the king's power. This denunciation appears to have had a good effect, as we do not find that the French have dared to execute their menace.

The house of commons soon entered upon the business of supply. It was proposed that 120,000 seamen and marines should be allowed for the year 1799; and the house readily sanctioned the number, sir John Sinclair being the only objector to its unnecessary magnitude. The ministerial estimates of the army were also adopted, though the expenditure of this department was augmented.

As the new assessment for the year 1798 had not been sufficiently productive, a mode of supply was devised from which a sum, much larger than the produce of that scheme of taxation, was expected to accrue. To prepare the minds of the public in general for the intended impost, the chief magistrate of London called a meeting of the merchants, bankers, and principal traders; and it was unanimously voted, that, as the new assessment had 'failed to call forth a due ratio of contribution from many descriptions of persons,' the assembly would strongly support measures calculated to draw out the resources of the country in a more equal and effectual manner. Encouraged by this declaration, the minister (on the 3d of December) developed his scheme. He first mentioned the different heads of supply, according to the following calculation:

For the navy - - - - -	£ 13,642,000
For the army - - - - -	10,840,000
For a vote of credit of the last session -	1,000,000
For the ordnance - - - - -	1,570,000
For various services - - - - -	2,175,180
	<hr/>
	£ 29,227,180

He then stated the means of procuring this large supply. The duties reserved in lieu of the land-tax now perpetuated, would amount, he said, to 2,750,000 pounds; the consolidated fund would supply a million and a half; and the late regulation of the exports and imports would probably offer 1,700,000 pounds. As these sums, with the profit of the lottery, would not exceed 6,150,000 pounds, there would be a necessity of providing above 23 millions for the exigencies of the present year.

The new financial scheme, instead of regulating the impost by the style of living, regarded the income of the individual; and it was proposed, that no person should be ex-

empted from the tax, unless his annual income should appear to be less than sixty pounds. In estimating the probable produce of the scheme, Mr. Pitt entered into a detail respecting the various sources of income; and the result of his inquiry was a confident opinion, that the rental of land and houses, the interest drawn from the public funds, the profits of trade, &c. amounted in a year to 102 millions. From an aggregate thus ample, the government, he thought, might draw ten millions without subjecting the contributors to material inconvenience. The assessment, he observed, had been grossly evaded in numerous instances; but he trusted that the present demand, from the regulations with which the measure would be attended, would not be so shamefully eluded. The former tax, he added, would cease at the beginning of April; and the substitute would then take place. After an allowance for the interest of the loan charged upon the assessed taxes, and for other objects, the ten millions would be reduced to 9,200,000 pounds. About fourteen millions, therefore, would still be wanted; and, for that sum, a new loan would be necessary.—The minister concluded his financial statements with hyperbolic effusions, elevating the prosperity and glory of the British nation to an unparalleled height.

Little opposition was then made to the new proposal; and a bill was quickly prepared for carrying it into effect. While it was in its course, a motion from Mr. Tierney, against entering into any engagements which might prevent or impede a negotiation with France, produced a florid but feeble speech from Mr. Canning in defence of protracted and extended hostilities, and met with the usual fate of anti-ministerial propositions.

When the bill had received some alterations and improvements in a committee, it was attacked by sir John Sinclair and other members as ill-judged, unequal, and oppressive. It was defended, more plausibly than satisfactorily, by the author of the measure, by the solicitor-general, and sir William Young. On a division, 183 persons voted for it, and 23 against it. Other debates attended the investigation of it; but it was finally adopted by both houses.

It was required by this statute, that all persons who had from 60 to 65 pounds *per annum*, should pay ten shillings; and, from that income to 195 pounds, the scale of payment gradually rose to £ 17 14 6. The chief burthen fell on those who had 200 pounds *per annum* or a larger income, a tenth part of it being demanded from them. The act would have been much less objectionable, if the payment of a tenth had commenced with individuals who were in the

annual receipt of 700 or 800 pounds, instead of beginning at 200, as the defalcation of a tithe from the latter sum, or from any income between that and 700 pounds, will very sensibly diminish the ordinary comforts of many, while a proportional exaction from the more opulent will merely abridge their superfluities or luxuries.

Commissioners of particular descriptions will be authorised to super-intend the due execution of the act; and, if they should entertain any doubts of the accuracy of the statements of income, they may call witnesses, and ascertain the point by regular examination. Persons who support by oath a false statement of income, are to be subjected to the usual punishment of perjury.

During the Christmas recess, information was received of a foreign conquest. General Stuart and commodore Duckworth appeared with an armament, on the 7th of November, before the island of Minorca; and great consternation immediately seized the Spaniards. They abandoned some of their fortifications on the coast; and, though they had an opportunity of baffling the early attempts of the invaders, they scarcely gave them any molestation, and retired to avoid an attack.. The British troops, advancing into the island, were gratified with intelligence of the almost entire evacuation of the town of Mahon, of which a detachment easily took possession. The enemy, in the mean time, affected to fortify Ciudadella, and seemed disposed to make some resistance; but the firm countenance of the invading soldiery, and the arts practised to delude the Spaniards into an idea of the great amount of the force of their adversaries, so intimidated the governor, that he agreed to a negotiation. Terms of capitulation were signed on the 17th; and the whole island became subject to Great-Britain.

I R E L A N D.

The close of our last survey of Hibernian affairs gave a prospect of the speedy and complete suppression of the rebellion. The defeat of the French invaders at Ballinamuck accelerated the submission of the United Irishmen; but occasional depredations and outrages were still committed in different parts. One Holt was an active leader of a daring band; and, for some time, his movements diffused terror among the peaceable inhabitants.

A hostile party, on the 16th of September, appeared off the coast of Donegal in a French brig, and made a descent;

but, hearing of the event of the late battle, the commander of the *corps*, who was the notorious Napper Tandy, soon retired with his men.

A fresh invasion being meditated by the enemy, the seas were closely watched by our navy. On the 11th of October, sir John Borlase Warren descried some French ships near the Irish coast: he gave directions for an immediate chase, and brought the foe to action the next morning. The *Hoche*, the only ship of the line in the republican squadron, was captured after a spirited defence: the frigates, which were eight in number, then sailed away; but the English took three of them in the course of the day; and three others afterwards became prizes. As these vessels contained a considerable number of soldiers, sent to re-kindle the embers of the rebellion in Ireland, the discomfiture of the squadron was very seasonable and important; and, when the thanks of the British parliament were voted to lord Nelson, sir John Warren was honoured with the same compliment.

Among the persons who were taken in the *Hoche*, were some Irish mal-contents. Theobald Wolfe Tone, who was one of the number, was tried by a court-martial, and condemned to death. He begged that he might be shot rather than hanged; and, as the court refused to accede to his request, he cut his throat in prison. It was thought that the wound which he thus gave himself would not be mortal; but, after some delay, it occasioned his death. He was a man of some talents, and had acted as a negotiator at Paris, in the cause of his rebellious countrymen.

The ruffian Holt, after a long evasion of pursuit, formed the resolution of surrendering himself. He endeavoured to obtain a promise of pardon; but, failing in that point, he yielded at discretion, and was thrown into prison.

Various bills, rendered expedient by the disturbances of the realm, were brought forward in parliament. By one, attainder was denounced against particular rebels, if they should not surrender themselves within a certain period; and, by another, compensation was promised to the loyal for the losses which they had sustained from the disloyalty of their countrymen. To quiet the minds of the people, an act of amnesty was promulgated, not without some exceptions of notorious delinquents.

A bill having passed for permitting the emigration of many of the offenders to the territories of princes who were not at war with his Britannic majesty, some were desired to take speedy advantage of that permission; but others (of

whom one was Arthur O'Connor) were detained in confinement.

In the mean time, occasional executions of rebels took place; but the lord-lieutenant, in the midst of judgment, 'remembered mercy.' A well-known party accused him of excess of lenity, and wished for a governor who would be inclined to the adoption of more rigorous measures. To this party the marquis gave a new cause of offence, by reprobating the acquittal of a yeoman who had been tried for the murder of a rebel, and dissolving the court-martial which had thus favoured the prisoner.

In the hope of preventing a renewal of commotions by a close conjunction of interests, the king and his ministers have formed a determination of promoting an incorporative union between Ireland and Great Britain. Strong opposition has been made to the proposal by different classes of the community in the former realm; but, as it seems to promise beneficial effects, the majority of the nation, upon cool reflection, will perhaps be induced to acquiesce in it.

FRANCE.

While the extravagant expedition to Egypt occupied a great share of the public attention, the two councils of the republic were employed in various deliberations. Among other topics, the affairs of finance were repeatedly discussed. For the expected charges of the seventh year, 600 millions of livres were deemed requisite. On the 9th of October, it was stated, in the council of five hundred, that means of raising 545 millions had been discovered; and a confident hope was expressed, that the whole supply might be obtained without the necessity of imposing a tax on salt. Of the means already provided, the chief article was the land-tax, the produce of which was estimated at 210 millions; and the next article, in point of magnitude, was that of registration, amounting to 80 millions.

Sanction was given by the councils to a demand of the directory, for a levy of 200,000 men. An address to the nation was published on this occasion, intimating the expediency of the measure, for the humiliation of the enemies of France, and the completion of her triumphs.

A warm debate arose in the council of five hundred, on the 4th of November, in consequence of a motion for confiscating the property of those who, having been sentenced

for transportation in 1797, had quitted the place to which they were transported, and for banishing *in perpetuum* all persons of that description who should venture to return to France. These propositions were opposed with vehemence by Rouchon, who was frequently interrupted in his speech by loud clamours; but the assembly thought proper to adopt them.

About this time, an inquiry was made into the causes of an insurrection which had broken out in several of the Belgic provinces incorporated with the republic. It was affirmed by some, that the new levy of troops, being compulsive, had occasioned the disturbances; but others maintained, that this was a mere pretence, and that a spirit of fanaticism, and an attachment to the old system of government in the Netherlands, had produced the commotions.

In the district of the Waes, the peasants and other malcontents took arms, and declared their intention of opposing the levy, as an arbitrary and oppressive measure. Troops were quickly called out to quell the insurrection; and brisk skirmishes ensued. The disorders extended to the districts of Mechlin and Louvain; and the constituted authorities at Brussels dreaded an explosion in the vicinity of that town. While general Beguinot was on his march against the insurgents, a party of them entered Mechlin, plundered the town-house, and filled the place with confusion; but he dispersed them with ease, and the town became tranquil, though it was declared to be in a state of siege. The rebels were dislodged from other posts; and engagements frequently occurred. Cruelties were perpetrated by both parties. Many of the obnoxious supporters of the government were sacrificed by the peasants; and, on the other hand, villages were burned, and massacres committed, by the troops of the directory.

The defeats of small bodies of the insurgents were magnified by the friends of the government into glorious victories; and, when the Belgians gained an advantage, their adversaries denied the circumstance, or endeavoured to prevent the propagation of the unpleasing intelligence.

No concert or regularity of plan prevailed among the rebels: the movements and operations of different parties were tumultuary and desultory; and, while one body harassed the government in one place, undisciplined bands rose in arms in other districts, and divided the attention of the satellites of directorial tyranny.

While these insurrections were yet unquelled, French vanity and ambition were gratified with dispatches from Egypt, relating the progress of the unprovoked invasion of

that country. As early as the 2d of July, the French had landed near Alexandria. They took some posts by assault, gained others by capitulation, and were masters of the whole city in the evening. They wreaked their vengeance on the inhabitants, even for their short opposition, by an atrocious massacre of a great number of them: not only the active defenders of the town, but old men, women, and children, who had fled into mosques for security, became victims of republican fury*.

For the promotion of his success, Buonaparte employed both conciliation and terror. He dispersed copies of a proclamation (written in the Arabic language), declaring to the Egyptians, that his only view was to rescue them from the yoke of the beys, to whose tyranny he imputed the wretched state of their country; and that the French were the allies of the Turks, and true friends to Islamism: he at the same time intimated, that every town or village in which he should meet with opposition, should be destroyed.

Advancing towards Grand Cairo, the general was attacked, on the 21st of July, by Morad, one of the beys, with a small army of Mamelouks. These descendants of Christian slaves fought with impetuosity; but they were overpowered by the invaders, who by this victory obtained possession of the Egyptian capital. The inhabitants of Rosetta and Damietta were also obliged to submit to the disgrace of receiving French garrisons.

From the head-quarters at Cairo orders were issued for the regulation of the government of Egypt, as if the French had possessed themselves of the whole country. It was decreed, that in each province there should be a divan, consisting of seven individuals, who should act in subserviency to the republican general; that there should also be in each province an aga, who should parade about the country with a body of armed natives, for the maintenance of tranquillity and order; and an intendant, who should receive, for the use of the French, the revenues before paid to the beys. Amidst this usurpation of power and prerogative, the general pretended that he would secure, to the pacha of Egypt appointed by the grand signor, his dignity and his revenue. Here we may observe, that, before the French invasion, the pacha had long been a mere cipher, the real power of the state being in the hands of the beys.

* * Hommes, femmes, vieillards, jeunes, et enfans, tous sont massacrés.
Letter from Boyer, Adjutant-General of the French Army, to his Relatives.

Considering Cairo as sufficiently secure, Buonaparte marched in pursuit of the bey Ibrahim, who was at the head of a body of Mamelouks. The bey fled as the French advanced, and they had only an opportunity of assaulting his rear, on which they could make little impression. He retired into the deserts; and Buonaparte returned to Cairo. It was during this excursion that the intelligence of the disaster in the bay of Aboukir reached the general, whose mortification may easily be conceived, as his retreat from Egypt, if a reverse of fortune by land should incline him to quit the country, was rendered impracticable.

For some time, a report of the death of Buonaparte prevailed in Europe. It was affirmed, that, having assembled many of the inhabitants of Cairo, and insisting on a pecuniary contribution, he was shot by a native of Tripoli. But, in an official account published at Paris, after a long suspension of intelligence, no mention was made of the death of the commander in chief, though it was stated that an insurrection of the populace had taken place at Cairo on the 21st of October, that general Dupuy had been mortally wounded, and that hostilities had continued till the 23d, when, after a great slaughter of the Egyptians, the French restored tranquillity. But, though it may be true that they quelled the disturbance, they are certainly in a dangerous situation. Their number must have been considerably diminished by disease and hostility; and the reviving spirit of the people may effect a counter-revolution.

HOLLAND.

It was apprehended by the French directory, that the commotions in Belgium might produce, among the Dutch, a desire of shaking off the yoke to which, notwithstanding their nominal independence, they are really subjected. But, though they have reason to be discontented, the Hollanders have remained quiet. It even appears, that they have advanced money, at the desire of the directory, to facilitate the suppression of the revolt of their neighbours.

GERMANY.

While the chief princes of Germany were invited by Great Britain to form a new confederacy against France,

the plenipotentiaries at Rastadt continued to treat of peace. In a note of the 5th of September, it was observed by the French ministers, that the chief difficulties which retarded an accommodation, were reducible to three questions, *viz.* whether the forts of Kehl and Cassel should be restored to the empire, the debts of the territories on the ceded bank of the Rhine be added to the burthens of the opposite districts, and the laws against emigrants be enforced in the provinces given up to the French. In these points, the French made some concessions. At length, on the 12th of December, they announced the final settlement of the first basis of the negotiation, and declared their readiness to expedite the remaining part, *viz.* the adjustment of the scheme of secularization and indemnity; a business which will probably occasion considerable debate.

The emperor remains in a state of indecision with regard to a renewal of the war; and the king of Prussia firmly resists all endeavours for engaging him in a new crusade. Both these princes, perhaps, are apprehensive that, if they should not be successful in renewed hostilities, a revolution unfavourable to monarchical despotism may take place in their dominions.

SWITZERLAND.

The efforts of the French not having so completely subjugated the cantons as the pentarchs of Paris wished, general Schauenburg, a ready instrument of directorial tyranny, undertook the task of accomplishing the flagitious scheme. In several of the cantons, the Swiss had concluded with that commander a convention, which appeared to secure to them, in a great measure, the enjoyment of their ancient rights: but, notwithstanding this agreement, he insisted on a full submission from those communities to the new constitution. On their refusal of acquiescence, he led an army, in September, into the district of Underwald; and, aided by the treachery of many of the inhabitants, he defeated a small army of Swiss, who fought with the most determined intrepidity. Much blood was shed on both sides; and the French, after their victory, committed horrible acts of devastation and cruelty. Schauenburg then proceeded into the neighbouring cantons of Schwitz and Zug; and his approach produced the immediate submission of the inhabitants, whom he deprived of their arms.

The Grisons, the allies of the Swiss, were urged by

the French to incorporate themselves with the Helvetic republic: but the scenes which had passed in the cantons had such an effect upon their minds, that they resolved to throw themselves into the arms of Austria, rather than accept the *blessings* of Gallic fraternity. The diet took measures for the expulsion of the partisans of France from the offices into which they had intruded themselves; and intimation was given to the emperor of the danger to which the Grison state was exposed from the proximity of a French army. Troops were levied for the defence of the country; the leaders of opposition were seized; the menaces of the French resident were treated with contempt; and, on the 17th of October, a convention was signed with the court of Vienna, the latter engaging to defend the territories and maintain the privileges of the Grisons. The next day, an Austrian army entered the country; and the chief posts were occupied by the strangers, in concert with a small force of the natives. The French, unwilling at that time to come to a rupture with the emperor, dissembled their resentment; and Schauenburg declared, that the good understanding between the directory and that prince would not be impaired by these proceedings.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

The Spaniards are not so decidedly hostile to Great-Britain as their allies would wish them to be; nor are they disposed to gratify the enmity of the French against Portugal. At their desire, the directory consented to receive a plenipotentiary from the court of Lisbon, that a negotiation might be recommenced; but the terms which the French wished to impose were not calculated to produce an accommodation.

I T A L Y.

In treating of the important affairs of Italy, we will begin from the north. In the Cis-alpine state, a violent contest arose in the summer between the adherents of the Parisian directory and those politicians who wished to secure to that republic the dignity of independence. Incensed at the spirit of the latter, the French despots resolved to new-model that constitution which had been given as an extraordinary favour to the Cis-alpines, and to punish, by

imprisonment, or in other modes, the opposers of their will. It was peremptorily required by the French envoy, in September, that the two councils should be reduced to one half of their former number, that their power and privileges should be diminished, and a decisive sway over them be assigned to the five directors, whom it was easy for those of Paris to influence. To this arbitrary mandate the deputies were obliged to submit; and the new constitution was sanctioned.

The Ligurian republic is in a similar state of dependence. Those members of the legislature, who were inclined to follow their own sentiments in preference to the dictates of France, have been deprived of their seats; and tyranny and rapacity harass the unfortunate Genoese.

A revolution has been recently effected in Piedmont. The French ascribed, to their extraordinary moderation, the long delay of such a change; but the perfidy and the anti-republican spirit of the court of Turin, they said, rendered it necessary to put an end to his authority. It was not a difficult task to execute this determination. Early in December, several fortified towns were seized by French detachments; and the enemy gained complete possession of Turin. On the 9th, the king was constrained by his powerful adversaries to relinquish the sovereignty of Piedmont; and an agreement was signed, by which he ordered his subjects to obey the French, who engaged to introduce no change that should affect the catholic religion, or the security and property of individuals. He was permitted to retire to the island of Sardinia; and Piedmont was subjected to a republican form of government.

The Roman commonwealth having excited the apprehension and jealousy of the king of Naples, and the French persisting in the support of an establishment which endangered the stability of his power, he was induced to listen to the reiterated persuasions of the court of London. He took the field in November, and made an irruption into the Roman territory, alleging that the erection of a republic in that country was repugnant to the treaty of Campo-Formio, and declaring his intention of compelling the French to renounce their usurpation. They were obliged to retire from various posts; but they soon returned with augmented force, defeated the Neapolitans, invaded the province of Abruzzo with success, and threatened the city of Naples with a visit. There is reason to believe, that the event of the war will be highly unfavourable to the king.

Though Malta is not usually considered as a part of Italy, it is at so inconsiderable a distance from Sicily, that we may,

without impropriety, introduce in this place some account of the late occurrences in that island. The government of the French soon became unpopular; and the Maltese did not conceal their discontent. To secure themselves more effectually from the violence which there was reason to apprehend, the former retired into the forts of the capital, whence they occasionally fired over the houses, so as to intimidate the inhabitants into the grant of supplies of provision. A fleet of British and Portuguese ships appearing near the island, the French were summoned to an immediate surrender; and, on their refusal, the marquis Nizza formed a blockade with his vessels, while sir James Saumarez, who had borne an honourable share in the engagement at Aboukir, proceeded to Gibraltar, though not before he had supplied the Maltese with arms and ammunition. On the 28th of October, the neighbouring isle of Goza, or Gozzo, was reduced by commodore Ball; but no certain account has been received of the re-capture of the forts of Malta.

TURKEY.

The invasion of Egypt so fully evinced the encroaching spirit and dangerous ambition of the French, that the Ottoman cabinet exhibited strong symptoms of alarm, and seemed to feel the necessity of opposing the restless republicans. The naval victory of Nelson encouraged the sultan in his hostile views; and he at length announced to the foreign ministers at Constantinople his resolution of declaring war. The resident and other subjects of France were imprisoned; and a general animosity against the republic was eagerly promoted by the court.

The 'manifesto of the Sublime Porte,' promulgated on this occasion, seems not to be the sole fruit of Turkish deliberation and labour: it is probable that the British minister at Constantinople, or his secretary, had a great share in the composition of it. It traces the proceedings of the French from the æra of the revolution to the present time, contrasts the openness and moderation of the Porte with the duplicity and injustice of the rulers of the republic, and represents the views of the latter, however masked with a zeal for the diffusion of liberty, as being directed to the banishment of every orderly institution from the face of the globe, to the subversion of human society, and to the overthrow of the constitution of every established independent state, by means of the alternate exercise of secret intrigue and open hostility.

A fleet was now equipped with great expedition; and it was joined by a Russian Squadron from the Euxine. The combined armament, which is represented as consisting of 11 ships of the line and 16 frigates, soon met with some success. The commanders gained possession of the isle of Cerigo; and to this conquest they added that of Zante, as well as that of Cephalonia. In November, a descent was made in Corfu; but, as the fortifications of this island, which had been kept in good order by the Venetian engineers, have been improved by the French, the report of its early reduction may be considered as premature.

If we reflect on the conjunction of the Turks with the adversaries of France, we may justly deem it an act of imprudence in the grand signor to take part in the war; for, though some politicians have recommended foreign war as an antidote to domestic commotions, it seems very improbable that such a measure will operate as a remedy in the present case. The new enemies of the Porte are known to have some skill in the propagation of revolutionary doctrines; and the yet unquelled revolt of the pacha of Widin is not one of those insurrections which a leader would be inclined to relinquish for the general defence of the established government of his country.

RUSSIA.

The sovereign of this great empire has at length commenced warlike operations against the French. The progress of his fleet we have already mentioned; but the exploits of a considerable army which he has sent into the Austrian dominions, will be the subjects of consideration, when the men who compose it shall have entered upon the task of delivering Europe—the professed object of their march.

The advance of the Russian army produced a remonstrance from the Gallic ministers at Rastadt, intimating, that, if the diet of Ratisbon should not effectually oppose the march of the northern intruders, the republic would break off the negotiation. What effect this declaration has had upon the progress of the Moscovites, we have not learned.

The alliance between the courts of Petersburg and Constantinople will not, we think, be of great service to the Anti-Gallican cause. Such confederates cannot be expected to unite with cordiality; and the league will perhaps terminate in a rupture.

NORTH-AMERICA:

Military and naval preparations are still continued, with zeal and vigour, throughout the United States. Many ships of war, but chiefly of a small size, have been equipped; and some predatory French vessels have been captured. The regiments of militia have been organised and disciplined on an improved plan: the regular force of the republic has been augmented; and the fortifications of the towns most exposed to an attack have been repaired and improved.

For several months, alarming accounts were received of the revival and fatal progress of the yellow fever in many of the American towns: but, as the winter approached, its rage declined. At the meeting of the congress, on the 8th of December, the president proposed an inquiry into the laws of the different states respecting the preservation of health, that new regulations might be devised for obviating the malignancy of a disease which had so considerably diminished the population of the country.

The other parts of the speech of the president, related to the disputes with the French, and to various political topics. He mentioned the 'ultimate failure' of the measures which had been taken for an amicable adjustment of all differences with France. The rulers of that country, he said, 'appeared solicitous to impress the opinion, that they were averse to a rupture;' and they had declared that they were 'willing to receive a minister for the purpose of restoring a good understanding:' but they had expressed themselves in terms which seemed to imply a right of prescribing the qualifications requisite for such a minister; a pretension which he considered as inadmissible. He added, that the decree of the directory, alleged to be intended to restrain depredations, 'had not given and could not give any relief,' as it enjoined a conformity to those laws which were 'themselves the sources of the depredations.' He could discover nothing in the conduct of France which ought to change or relax the measures of public defence: on the contrary, it was true policy to extend and invigorate them. 'In proportion (said he) as we enlarge our view of the portentous and incalculable situation of Europe, we shall discover new and cogent motives for the full developement of our energies and resources.' While he held this spirited language, he did not wish it to be inferred, that he had abandoned the desire of peace; for he was of opinion, that

an efficient preparation for war could alone ensure peace. It was at the *option* of France to restore that blessing: whether it was her *wish* would be seen hereafter.

The able president concluded a judicious harangue with inculcating the importance of concord and unanimity, and expressing his hopes that the two assemblies, by the temper and wisdom of their proceedings, would contribute to secure to their country that 'weight and respect to which it was justly entitled.' That the legislature will answer this expectation, the general conduct of the two houses will not suffer us to doubt.

WEST-INDIES.

The great inconvenience, loss of lives, and consumption of treasure, occasioned by the occupancy of a part of St. Domingo, have long been lamented: but it is now useless to wish that the island had not been invaded. We are informed that the posts which were retained by our troops after the evacuation of Port-au-Prince and St. Marc, have been abandoned, to the great joy of general Toussaint, who seems inclined to render himself independent of the French republic. In consequence of warm disputes, Hedouville, the agent of the directory, has retired from the island, accusing his opponent of selfish ambition and perfidy; while Toussaint has transmitted to Europe a vindication of his conduct. What will be the issue of the contest is a point of curious speculation, which we leave to the sagacity of our political readers.

VOLUNTARY APOLOGY TO AN AUTHORESS.

As works of instruction for females are not infrequently written by persons of the opposite sex, we attributed 'l'institutrice' (see our last vol. p. 560), notwithstanding the feminine title, to *Monsieur* Le Noir: but, finding that it is the work of *Mademoiselle* Le Noir, we gladly restore to that lady the honour of which we had deprived her.

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